

A SKETCH OF CHINESE HISTORY

SHANGHAI
KELLY & WALSH, LIMITED
PRINTERS AND PUBLISHERS

A SKETCH OF CHINESE HISTORY

BY

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Fourth Edition—Revised

SHANGHAI:

Kelly and Walsh, Limited

HONGKONG :: SINGAPORE :: HANKOW

1923

THIS BOOK IS DEDICATED

TO

J F SEAMAN, ESQ ,

AN AMERICAN MERCHANT IN CHINA FOR FORTY-FIVE YEARS AND
ONE OF THE U S COMMISSIONERS FOR THE REVISION OF THE
COMMERCIAL TREATY WITH CHINA, AS A TOKEN OF THE AUTHOR'S
SINCERE REGARD FOR ONL WHO IN PRIVATE CHARACTER AND IN
PUBLIC LIFE EXHIBITED THE BEST TRAITS OF THE AMERICAN
GENTLEMAN AND PUBLIC SPIRITED CITIZEN

PREFACE

SINCE the outbreak of 1900, so many books have been written about China that it would seem as if there ought to be some explanation on the part of one who ventures to add to their number.

The present volume is written to meet a practical need. The author has long felt in his work as a teacher the want of a short history of China. Of larger histories, and of monographs treating fully of some one period, there is no lack, but a concise outline of Chinese history accenting the turning points in the life of the nation has not yet been produced.

To reduce the voluminous native histories of China to a small compass is undoubtedly an ambitious undertaking, but yet it is a task that someone must attempt. The average student has not the time nor the inclination to wade through the cumbrous volumes which exist at present, and when he ventures to do so, he often becomes discouraged because of the impossibility of remembering the strange and difficult names of the persons and places with which the pages are crowded, and perhaps lays down the book without having gained any very clear impression of the history as a whole.

It is hoped that this brief survey of the entire field may be of service in making it easier for the reader to fix in his mind the salient points of the long story.

In the spelling of the names of persons we have followed as far as possible one system throughout, namely, that of Professor Giles of Cambridge University.

A word may be said as to the attitude of the writer. It is difficult to write history without bias, and the author does not claim wholly to have escaped this danger, but at the same time

he can honestly say that he has tried to be fair, and to regard his subject as well from the point of view of the Chinese as from that of the foreigner. It seems to him that many otherwise excellent books concerning China are vitiated by the fact that their authors could only see one side of a question

If the West is ever to understand the East, something more is necessary than the mere reading of descriptive books of the Empire, written by travellers and journalists. To understand a people one must have some knowledge of their history.

This humble contribution to the history of China is offered to the public in the hope that it may prove useful as a textbook in schools, and may be of some value in acquainting the people of the West with the people of China

The author wishes to acknowledge his indebtedness to the Rev. C. F. McRae, B D, for his valuable assistance in reading the proofs and compiling the index. His advice on many points has helped to render the book more accurate and perspicuous

February 1903

In putting forth this second edition, care has been taken to remove inaccuracies, and to bring the book up-to-date.

The author would take this opportunity of expressing his thanks to all who have helped him by criticism or suggestion.

The spelling of the names of the Provinces and Cities of China has been changed, to be in accordance with the system adopted by the Imperial Maritime Customs

The author is specially indebted to Dr. H. B. Morse, Commissioner of the Statistical Department of I C. M. Customs, for much valuable criticism, and to Mr. Clarence Clowe of Tientsin, for the translation of the names into Chinese.

During the last six years much history has been made in China. In putting out this third edition, Chapters have been added bringing the book up-to-date and giving a summary of the present situation. Everything is still in the process of transition and it is difficult to keep up with the rapid changes.

As the book goes to press the centre of interest is shifted from the Far East to the Titanic Conflict in Europe, but if we mistake not the results of that struggle will be felt in China, and will modify her future development.

April 1915.

The author has long cherished the purpose of writing a fuller history of China, but other duties have left so little time for literary work that this has been impossible. In the meantime, encouraged by the fact that the present sketch seems to have supplied a need, and is still in demand, he puts out this revised edition. The text has been corrected, emendations have been made, and a chapter has been added, bringing the history up to the present day.

February 1923.

F. L. H. P.

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NOTE --*The Author is indebted to Mr E H Parker for permission to reproduce his map showing the gradual extension of the Empire*

A SKETCH OF CHINESE HISTORY

CHAPTER I.

Introduction

**Peculiar Features
of
Chinese History.**

THE History of China is remarkable for many reasons. In the first place, it is the history of the oldest nation in the world. Other ancient Empires like Egypt,¹ Babylonia,² and Assyria,³ once contemporaries of China, came into existence, reached the zenith of their development, and passed away, but she still continues to exist.

A second remarkable feature of Chinese history is that it tells the story of a people who over three thousand years ago reached a high degree of civilization, but who since that time have moved forward but little. As has often been stated, China furnishes a striking example of what the scientist calls *arrested development*. Up to a certain point progress was made in the art of government, arts, manufactures, literature, religion, philosophy, and all that is included in the term civilization, but then there came a period of stagnation, from which China has only recently begun to recover.

A third striking characteristic is that it is the history of a nation which, up to recent times, has been but little influenced by the rest of the world. The Chinese, for ages, owing largely to their isolated geographical position, were not brought into close relations with the people of other Continents. As a consequence of this separation they developed their own peculiar type of civilization, and the spirit of exclusiveness and the sense of superiority over all outside the Middle Kingdom, as they call their country, became ingrained in their nature. In modern times when forced

to come into intercourse with the Countries of Europe, these traits of national character were much in evidence.

**The Origin
of the
Chinese Race.**

The origin of the Chinese Race is shrouded in obscurity. Some suppose that the ancestors of the Chinese first lived in the territory south of the Caspian Sea,¹ and migrated eastward somewhere about the twenty-third century B.C. Others assert that their original home was in Babylonia, on the great Euphrates Plain, and that they were an off-shoot of the ancient Sumerian civilization. Still others have attempted to trace some connection between the Chinese and the Egyptians.

What seems certain is, that they were originally a nomad people who travelled from the western part of Asia and coming through the pass between the Tien Shan and Altai Mountains made a settlement first of all in what is now the modern Province of Shensi,² in the valley of the Yellow River. Ethnologically they differ from other peoples of Western Asia, as is evidenced by the structure of the hair, and the formation of the eyes.

After their migration they soon took up agricultural pursuits and ceased to be merely a pastoral people. Among the most primitive characters of the Chinese written language, we find hieroglyphs which point to the conclusion that they not only kept sheep and cattle but also engaged in tilling the soil.

It is thought by some that Chinese architecture furnishes a proof that the Chinese in ancient times were a nomadic people. In many ways the construction of a modern Chinese house bears a strong resemblance to that of a tent, and it is possible to account for the similarity in this way.

**The Aborigines
of
China.**

The Chinese were not the first inhabitants of the country in which they settled. Upon migrating to the valley of the Yellow River, they found aboriginal tribes, already in possession and obtained the territory from them by conquest. As the Chinese extended, these native tribes were pressed farther and farther to the South and West, but were never entirely exterminated. The

modern Lolos,¹ Shans,² and Miaotsz³ are the descendants of these original inhabitants and still have settlements in the islands of Formosa⁴ and Hainan,⁵ and in the Provinces of Kweichow,⁶ Szechwan,⁷ Yunnan,⁸ Kwangtung,⁹ and Kwangsi.¹⁰

**The Geographical
Configuration
of the
Chinese Empire.**

We have already referred to the fact that China by its geographical position is an isolated country. It is bounded on the North and West by deserts or steppes, beyond which are high mountain chains; it is bounded on the East and South by the waters of the Pacific. In shape it is an irregular triangle, covering 5,000,000 square miles and supporting a total population of 400,000,000 souls.

If we bisect it by drawing a line from North to South, we shall find that the western half is for the most part mountainous and the Eastern half generally flat. The Eastern half is the richer and contains three-quarters of the population. With the exception of Szechwan, the Western half in its present undeveloped state is comparatively poor.

The country also naturally divides itself into a North and a South, the Yangtse¹¹ River forming the boundary between the two divisions. As we shall see, the Great River of China has more than once been the dividing line separating warring Kingdoms and factions. The characteristics of the people of the North and the South differ considerably, the inhabitants of the North being especially noted for their physical strength, and those of the South for their intellectual vigour.

In extending their Empire the Chinese have naturally followed the line of least resistance. Their first great historical advance was up the River Wei¹² into Szechwan. Somewhat later they passed through the two great lake regions by way of the Kan River¹³ of Kiangsi,¹⁴ and the Yüan¹⁵ and Hsiang¹⁶ Rivers of Hunan into the region about Canton.¹⁷

**References to China
in the literature
of the West.**

There are indefinite allusions to China in the early literature of the West, and it is referred to as *Sin*, *Chin*, Seres or Cathay. It is generally supposed that Sin is derived from *Tsin*, the name

of the dynasty which ruled from B.C. 221-200). This in turn was the origin of the word China. *Cathay* came from Kitai, the name of a Tartar tribe in the North, with which China came into conflict at an early period.

**Epochs of
Chinese History.**

When we study the history of the countries of Europe, one of the principal points of interest is to observe how the form of government, as it exists at the present day, is the result of a gradual evolution. We are able to trace the rise and growth of modern political and social institutions, and to notice the trend toward the establishment of self-governing states, possessing civil and political freedom. In the study of Chinese History it is difficult to pursue the same method. Chinese historians have not written history in the true sense of the word, but have left behind them a vast mass of facts, without attempting to trace to any extent the connection between causes and effects. The most trivial and the most important occurrences stand side by side on their pages, and the arduous task of sifting and arranging these data, and of tracing the relations between them remains to be accomplished by future historians.

Owing to the way in which Chinese History has been written, some have hastily come to the conclusion that it is lacking in any real advance, that there has been no change in the political and social institutions for thousands of years, and that all the narrator can do is to give a dry outline of the lives of the Emperor of the successive Dynasties—a chronicle rather than a history.

A closer study however shows that Chinese History is not the vast level plain sometimes described, but has its hills and summits, and that numerous important movements can be clearly traced and distinguished.

Chinese History may be divided into four Great Periods, as follows:—

- I.—The Conquest of China by the Chinese.
- II.—The First Struggle with the Tartars,¹ ending with the Division of the Empire between the Tartars and the Chinese.
- III.—The Second Struggle with the Tartars, ending in the conquest of China by the Manchus.²

IV.—The Struggle between China and Western Nations

These main divisions may be subdivided as follows:—

I.—The Conquest of China by the Chinese (B.C. 2852-B.C. 206)

- 1.—The Mythical and Legendary Period¹ (B.C. 2852-1766).
- 2.—The Epoch of the development of Tribal² Chieftains into Emperors (B.C. 1766-1122)
- 3.—The Feudal Period³ (B.C. 1122-221).
- 4.—The period of Centralization, and Consolidation⁴ of the Empire by Shih Huang-ti⁵ (B.C. 221-206)

II.—The first struggle with the Tartars (B.C. 206-A.D. 589).

- 1 —The Han Dynasty⁶ (B.C. 206-A.D. 214).
- 2 —Period of Disunion at the close of the Han Dynasty (A.D. 214-223)
- 3 —The Division of the Empire between the Tartars in the North, and the Chinese in the South (A.D. 223-589).

III.—The Second Struggle with the Tartars (A.D. 589-1644).

- 1 —A period of reconsolidation (A.D. 589-907)
- 2 —A period of Military Supremacy, when successful generals seized and occupied the throne (A.D. 907-960).
- 3 —The Division of the Empire between the Kins⁷ (Tartars) in the North, and Sung⁸ (Chinese) in the South (A.D. 960-1280).
- 4.—The Mongol⁹ Invasion, and Conquest of China (A.D. 1280).
- 5 —The Rule of the Mongols The Yuan¹⁰ Dynasty (A.D. 1280-1368)
- 6 —The Expulsion of the Mongols and the Restoration of a Chinese Dynasty, the Ming¹¹ (A.D. 1368-1644).
- 7.—The period of the Manchu Conquest (1644)

IV.—The struggle between China and Western European Nations (A.D. 1662—).

- 1.—Wars with Great Britain (1840-1861).
- 2.—War with France (1884).
- 3.—War with Japan, and subsequent acts of aggression by Western Powers (1894).
- 4.—The attempt to drive out Westerners and save the Empire from disintegration (1900).
- 5.—The Russo-Japanese War, and the period of reconstruction (1904-1905).
- 6.—The Revolution (1911).
- 7.—The Establishment of the Republic (1911).

DIVISION I.

The Conquest of China by the Chinese (B.C. 2852-206.)

CHAPTER II.

The Mythical and Legendary Periods (B.C. 2852-1766.)

**The
Mythological
Age.¹**

The Chinese, like the people of India, believe that from the beginning of the world until the present an exceedingly long period of time has elapsed. From the formation of heaven and earth to the accession of Fu Hsi² (B.C. 2852) at least 500,000 years are supposed to have intervened. In connection with that vast period there are many myths, a few of which may be mentioned.

**Myths in regard
to Creation.**

P'an Ku³ according to a Taoist legend is said to have been the first living being on the earth, and to him was committed the task of moulding the chaos that produced him, and of chiselling out the earth that was to contain him. He is represented in pictures as a huge giant with a chisel in one hand and a mallet in the other, engaged in splitting and shaping the rocks. He is believed to have worked for 18,000 years, and as the result of his toils the heavens and earth were gradually formed.

There followed him in succession three mythological persons, called the celestial,¹ the terrestrial,² and the human sovereigns.³ Each of these lived for 18,000 years, and, as the result of their united operations, the universe went through a slow process of transformation until it assumed its present shape.

**Myths in regard
to the origin
of Dwellings and
Fire.**

Yu Ch'ao,⁴ whose name means "the dweller in a nest," succeeded the last of the above-mentioned mythological rulers. He taught men how to build houses, for before his time they had lived in the holes of the ground, the caves of the hills, and among the branches of the trees.

Then followed Sui Jên,⁵ the "producer of fire." Like Prometheus in Greek Mythology, he taught men how to bring fire down from heaven. The method he employed was the simple one of boring one piece of wood with another until the friction produced combustion. This discovery is said to have had a great civilizing influence, as men began to use fire in the preparation of food, formerly eaten raw; and gave up living like the wild beasts of the forest.

To Sui Jên is also ascribed the instruction of men in making calculations by the primitive method of tying knots on strings at different intervals.

**The value
of these Myths.**

From the historian's point of view these myths possess but little value, yet they are interesting as giving a glimpse into the working of the human mind and show how the early Chinese reasoned as to the origin of things. They believed there was a long period of development or evolution before the world attained its present condition, that primitive man was barbarous in his habits, and that progress in civilization was slow and gradual. The myths are also interesting because they are stories handed down from an early period, accounting for the operations of nature and the progress made by human invention by attributing them to the actions of supernatural beings. All these myths show the influence of Taoist thought.

**Sources of
Historical
Information.**

Passing over the period of pure myth we come to the period of Legendary History. First, however, we must say a few words as to the sources from which we derive our knowledge of Chinese History. Reliable Chinese History does not extend further back than the middle of the Chou¹ Dynasty (B.C. 722), and the account of the preceding ages is so mingled with tradition that it is almost impossible to distinguish with certainty what is authentic and what legendary. We are dependent for our knowledge of ancient Chinese history on the following sources, first the Books edited by Confucius,² especially the Book of History (書 Ching).³ On this we are taken back to the times of Yao and Shun, 2,000 years before Christ, secondly, the history of Sze Ma-chien⁴ (B.C. 104), which begins with the reign of Huang Ti and thirdly with the Annals of the Bamboo Books, which were discovered in a tomb in Honan in 280 A D., and which are very ancient. In the latter we obtain an account of the early legendary period. After the time of the Chou Dynasty we come to more solid ground, for at the beginning of the Han Dynasty (B.C. 206) the custom originated of employing Court Chroniclers,⁵ to write a daily account of governmental proceedings. These diaries were kept secret and stored away in iron chests until the Dynasty they chronicled passed away; then they were opened and published, and form the basis of our knowledge of the events that transpired while the Dynasty was in existence.

**The Legendary
Age⁶ of the
Five Rulers.**

Legendary History begins with an account of Eleven rulers, five of whom were celebrated for illustrious virtue—hence the title of the Age. These Rulers in many ways were much more like great Tribal Chieftains than Kings in the true sense of the word. Each of these five is supposed to have ruled for a very long period of time and to have done much for the civilization of the people. The first was Fu Hsi (B.C. 2852). He resided in Honan,⁷ near the present Kaifêngfu,⁸ and is said to have taught the people to fish with nets, to rear domestic animals, and to use the lute and lyre; to have instituted laws of marriage, and to have invented a system of writing by using pictures as symbols.

Much is attributed to him that is undoubtedly of later origin, as for instance the highly complicated system of Chinese written characters. Probably at this period the Chinese possessed nothing except rude hieroglyphics, and the present method of writing is the product of the slow development of ages.

The mysterious eight diagrams, the *Pa-Kwa*, a series of lines of symbolic meaning, from which the Chinese draw a mystic philosophy are considered to be one of his inventions.

Fu Hsi is generally revered among the Chinese as the founder of their history.

He was succeeded by Shen Nung,¹ the Second of the Five Rulers (B.C. 2737) whose name means the Divine Husbandman. He taught the people the art of tilling the ground, and the use of agricultural implements. Because of his discovery of the medicinal properties of herbs he is venerated in China as the father of medicine.

After several inferior rulers, Huang Ti,² the third of the Five Rulers (B.C. 2697) ascended the throne.

According to tradition, he invented the Chinese Calendar and the method of dividing time into cycles of sixty years. His wife taught the people to rear silk-worms, and to make garments of silk.

**The Reign
of
Yao (B.C. 2356).**

Passing over four rulers we come to the time of Yao³ who may be considered the fourth of The Five Rulers. He and the two succeeding Rulers, Shun⁴ and Yü,⁵ form a trio immortalized in the writings of Confucius and Mencius.⁶ They are constantly referred to as peerless in wisdom and virtue, and the period in which they lived is regarded as the Golden Age of China. The effort of all reformers has been to incite those in authority to imitate the lives of these ancient worthies, and thus restore the halcyon days of Yao and Shun.

Owing to this process of glorification, so much has been added to the account of the lives of these men that it is impossible now to separate fact from fiction. For instance, we read that in their days everyone was so honest that doors were never shut at night, and that if anyone saw an article of value lying on the road, he

would pass by without stopping to pick it up, allowing it to remain there until the owner came and found it.

Yao became Ruler in B.C. 2356, at the age of sixteen.

**The Great
Flood (B.C. 2297).**

The prosperity of his reign was disturbed by a great inundation of the country caused by the overflow of the Yellow River¹ (commonly called by Westerners China's Sorrow, on account of its frequent floods). The waters are said to have submerged a vast extent of territory, and to have risen to the tops of the mountains. Although the accounts of the disaster have been exaggerated, yet making every allowance, it must have been a severe calamity.

**Yao appoints
Shun
as his associate
(B.C. 2286).**

Yao hearing of the great filial piety displayed by Shun, a young man of twenty, determined to make him an associate in the management of the affairs of the Kingdom, and accordingly raised him to the position of joint ruler.

Shun recommended to Yao the famous Yu as one competent to cope with the disastrous flood, and through the efforts of the latter after eight years the inundation was finally brought under control, the waters being drained off into rivers, and into canals especially dug for that purpose.

When Yao was about to die he passed over his own worthless son and appointed Shun, to whom he had given his two daughters in marriage, as his successor.

**Astronomical
Knowledge
at this Period.**

As early as the days of Yao the Chinese possessed considerable astronomical knowledge. Two Astronomers named Hsi² and Ho,³ were appointed to rectify the calendar by the insertion of intercalary months so that the four seasons should recur at the proper times. It was also their duty to study carefully the heavenly movements, and give due notice of the approach of an eclipse. According to tradition they neglected their duty, and, giving themselves up to riotous living, failed to give warning of the approach of an eclipse of the sun. In consequence of this remissness, they were seized and executed by royal command.

**The Reign of
Shun
(B.C. 2255-2205).**

Shun reigned alone for fifty-three years and devoted much attention to the regulation of the religious services and to the arrangement of a code of punishments. In the later part of his reign, following the example of his predecessor Yao, he appointed as an associate in the government, the distinguished Yu, who afterward succeeded him and established the first regular Chinese Dynasty, called the Hsia.¹

**The form of
Government at
this period.**

We must bear in mind that China as we know it now is the slow growth of centuries. At the time of Yao and Shun the territory ruled over by the Chinese comprised only the Eastern half of the present Province of Shensi,² the Southern half of the present Province of Shansi, the Western part of the present Province of Shantung³ and the Northern half of the present Province of Honan, and a part of the present Province of Chihli⁴ [see map 1]. In area it was equal to about one-tenth of that of the present Eighteen Provinces. The Capital was at Yanghsin⁵ near the modern T'ai'ang⁶ in Honan.

From this territory the aborigines had been more or less completely expelled. The Chinese never seem to have attempted their entire extermination but allowed them to live in settlements of their own as long as they remained submissive to their new masters. From the *Shu-ching* we learn that the wild tribes were often subdued by pacific rather than by forceful measures.

At the time of Yao and Shun the primitive patriarchal system of government had developed into the monarchical. This was probably due to the fact that in the wars of conquest increased power fell into the hands of the successful chieftains and they naturally came to exercise regal functions. The succession to the throne was not at first strictly hereditary, but the sceptre was handed on to the one best fitted to wield it. Although later on the succession became hereditary, yet the Chinese have never adopted any strict rule of primogeniture, and the throne has frequently passed to one of the younger sons. Generally, the Ruler himself shortly before his death indicated the heir apparent.

During the period of Yao and Shun, we see the beginnings of what afterwards developed into the Feudal system of government. The authority of ruling over portions of the Kingdom was delegated to some of the great chieftains distinguished in the wars of their country, who soon came to exercise the prerogatives of Feudal Princes.

**The Division
of Land
at this Period.**

It is extremely difficult to understand clearly the early system of land tenure adopted by the Chinese. All land was held as a gift from the Ruler, and a portion of its produce was required by him in the way of taxes. According to the *Shu-ching*, there was a five-fold division of territory, which may be roughly described as follows. The Capital was fixed at the centre of five concentric squares of different sizes, enclosed one within another. The land in closest proximity to the capital was the Royal Domain¹. It extended in all directions for five hundred *li* or one hundred and sixty-six English miles. On this land, those living nearest to the capital paid the heaviest, and those at the greatest distance, the lightest taxes. Next to this was the land known as the Region of the Nobles' Tenure,² which consisted of lands allotted to the Great Officers, the Barons and the Princes of the Kingdom. This also extended in all directions five hundred *li*. Outside of this was the land known as the Region of Tranquil Tenure,³ extending five hundred *li* in all directions, three hundred *li* being set apart for the encouragement of literary instruction, and two hundred for the warriors who were to defend the country from the encroachments of external enemies. Outside of this was the land allotted to foreigners, that is, tribes that had submitted to China called the Domain of Restraint.⁴ To this territory convicts were transported. Lastly, there was the territory known as the Wild Domain⁵ occupied by unsubdued tribes and banished felons.

**The Religion
of China
at this time.**

In the accounts given us of the worship in the days of Yao and Shun, we have a picture of the primitive worship of the Chinese people. When Shun ascended the throne he offered animal sacrifices to Shang Ti,⁶ the Supreme Ruler, to the six Objects of

Honor, to the hills and rivers, and to the host of spirits. From the sacrifices offered to Shang Ti we see that along with the worship of the powers of Nature, the Chinese revered a god as much superior to all the other spirits as the Chief Ruler of the country was superior to his subordinate princes.

As far back as we can trace, we also find the system of Ancestral Worship.¹ Each Ruler sacrificed to the spirit of his ancestors, believing that they exercised great power for good or evil over the fortunes of the country, being able to dispense prosperity or calamity. It was also thought that the neglect of these ancestral rites would be punished by the occurrence of some severe national disaster such as flood or pestilence.

The system of divination by means of consulting the markings on the back of the tortoise and thus determining the will of heaven, is also of very early origin, and explicit rules for conducting this ceremony were clearly laid down.

**The Early
Constitution
of Society.**

The family has always been the unit of society among the Chinese, and the interests of the individual have always been subordinate to those of the family. The members of the same family lived in one hamlet, and the ramifications of the family composed the clan. The paucity of surnames among the Chinese is an evidence of the early division into clans. Along with the government of the chief Ruler, or Emperor, and the Officials appointed by him, there existed a system of local self-government. The heads of the family and the heads of the clans had the control of the people in regard to affairs of purely local character.

**The
Establishment
of the
First Dynasty
the
Hsia (B.C. 2205).**

After the death of Shun, Yü succeeded to the throne, and established the first regular Chinese Dynasty. The dynastic title Hsia is derived from a small territory in the modern Province of Honan, that had been given to him as a fief for his services in bringing under control the flood of the Yellow River. In regard to this monarch the following legends are handed down. During the whole eight years he was engaged on his Herculean task of draining the inundated country

he never once passed over the threshold of his own home to visit his family. Being anxious to stand in the closest relationship to his people, he suspended a drum, a gong, a triangular musical instrument of sonorous stone and a rattle outside the walls of his palace. When anyone wished to discourse with him upon the virtues that should adorn a monarch, he beat the drum, and was immediately admitted to the presence of his Monarch. When anyone thought there was room for improvement in the Monarch's manner of life, he struck the gong, and was at once granted an audience. When anyone had tidings of famine or rebellion, he came and hit the triangular instrument, and at once obtained an opportunity to impart his news. When any magistrate decided a case unjustly, the one who had been wronged came and shook the rattle, and was ushered into the presence of his Monarch, before whom he presented his appeal for redress.

Yu made some further conquests over the aboriginal tribes and extended the boundaries of his Kingdom to the south as far as the banks of the Yangtse River [*see* Map 2].

Before his time trade had been carried on chiefly by barter, but now the gold and silver mines were worked and the precious metals were used as media of exchange

The Emperor The reigns of the successors of the Emperor Yu
Chieh¹ contain little worth recording The succession to
(B.C. 1818-1766). the throne became hereditary, and consequently
 the imperial sceptre often fell into unworthy
 hands. The great princes became more powerful, and frequent
 rebellions broke out against the reigning monarch.

Chieh was the seventeenth and last ruler of the Dynasty, and is regarded as one of the most infamous characters in Chinese history.

He was completely under the influence of one of his concubines, a beautiful but wicked woman named Mei Hsi.² In company with this woman, he indulged in all sorts of immoral excesses, and perpetrated many acts of cruelty. The stories in regard to him read much like those told of the Roman Emperors in the days of Rome's decadence. As an example we may narrate

the following. In the garden of the palace was an immense pool filled with spirits, upon which guests were invited to row in small boats. At a given signal, all the pleasure seekers leaped into the pond, drank of the wine, and sported about until they became intoxicated.

The Emperor also built a subterranean palace where for thirty days he and his concubines, with their dissolute companions, engaged in immoral orgies. Although often censured by some of his virtuous ministers, he persistently refused to heed their rebukes and warnings.

The Rebellion of T'ang,¹ the Prince of Shang² A virtuous prince named T'ang,¹ claiming to be descended from the Emperor Huang Ti, and living in the little principality of Shang,² situated in the Eastern part of the modern Province of Honan, became convinced that he was called by Heaven to save the Empire from the ruin threatening it in consequence of the insane follies of the wicked Chieh, and to redress the grievances of the long-suffering people. Collecting an army, he advanced against the Capital, and gave battle to the imperial forces.

The engagement resulted in the complete defeat of Chieh, who was compelled to abdicate and was confined in Nan ch'ao³ in the modern Province of Anhwei.⁴ The victory gave the throne to T'ang, whose rebellion is the first successful one recorded in Chinese History.

CHAPTER III.

Epoch of the Development of the Tribal Chieftains into Emperors (B.C. 1766-1122).

**The Shang or
Yin¹ Dynasty
(B.C. 1766-1122).** WHEN T'ang ascended the throne, he established his Capital at Po,² in the Eastern part of the modern Province of Honan. He pacified the people by delivering an address in which he stated that he had not desired to usurp the throne, but had acted in accord with the express command of Heaven. This famous pronouncement is preserved for us in the *Shu-ching*, and is an evidence of the Chinese belief that Heaven's will is supreme, and that the sovereign power over the Empire is a trust from Heaven to be exercised for the good of the people.

**The
Great Drought.** The principal occurrence of his reign was a great drought lasting for seven years. The people over a wide area were reduced to starvation, and the suffering became so great that it was thought some human victim must be offered to appease the wrath of Heaven.

In this crisis the Emperor revealed true nobility of character, and offered to surrender his own life on behalf of the people. After having cut off his hair, and fasted for several days in the manner of a penitent, he clothed himself in white robes (the colour of mourning in China), and proceeded in a simple chariot, drawn by white horses, to a mulberry grove, the appointed place for the sacrifice about to be offered. There he confessed his sins, and besought Heaven to visit upon him, "the solitary man," the

punishment for the evil deeds of his people. According to tradition the death of the victim was not required, for in answer to his prayer copious rain fell from Heaven, refreshing the parched ground, and relieving the misery of the people.

Owing to the unselfishness and purity of his character, the Chinese, who have strict ideas in regard to the succession to the throne, have never regarded the Emperor T'ang in the light of a usurper, but, on the contrary, commend his action in assuming the imperial prerogative, and consider him one of their model rulers.

T'ang was much helped in his administration of the Kingdom by an able Prime Minister named I Yin.¹

The Successors
of
T'ang.

The immediate successor of T'ang was his grandson T'ai Chia² (B.C. 1753). This Emperor being weak in character, was soon led astray by evil companions. The Prime Minister I Yin after frequent remonstrances finally persuaded him to retire for a time into seclusion, to a place near the tomb of his grandfather, for the purpose of meditating on his own shortcomings and on the qualities that should adorn the life of the successor of such a great Ruler as the Emperor T'ang. The result of this temporary retirement proved salutary, and led to an entire change in the Emperor's manner of life.

During the reigns of the other Rulers of this Dynasty nothing of marked importance occurred, and the *Shu-ching*, our principal source of authority for this period, passes over in silence the reigns of fourteen sovereigns after the time of T'ai Chia.

During the reign of the Emperor P'an K'ang³ (B.C. 1401) it was decided to remove the Capital to Yin,⁴ a town in Honan, North of the Yellow River. This removal was rendered necessary owing to an overflow of the Yellow River. In consequence of this change in the seat of government, the Dynasty was thereafter known as the Yin, instead of the Shang.

The work of conquest was by no means finished and there was a constant struggle with the wild tribes on the borders of the empire. In addition to the wars with the aborigines, a new foe

appeared on the North, the savage Tartars. In the reign of Wu Ting¹ (B.C. 1292) a fierce but successful conflict was waged with these Northern enemies and for a time they were vanquished. This encounter is memorable as the beginning of the long, intermittent struggle between the Chinese and the Tartars, lasting for so many centuries and finally resulting in the conquest of China by the Manchus

**The reign
of
Chou Hsin²
(B.C. 1154-1122).**

Chou Hsin² was the twenty-eighth and last ruler of the Dynasty. In character he may be compared to the wicked Chieh, the last of the Hsia Dynasty. Although a man of undoubted ability, he was extravagant, cruel and dissipated. His favorite concubine, T'a Chi,³ a woman of infamous character, aided and abetted him in his life of debauchery. The large and costly Palace known as "The Stage Tower"⁴ was built for her amusement; and new and cruel methods of punishment were invented to satisfy her delight in witnessing the excruciating tortures of condemned prisoners. Among others, the following instance of cruelty has been handed down. While walking in her garden T'a Chi noticed that when a number of men were crossing a stream near by, the younger appeared to feel the cold more than the older. In a discussion that arose between her and the Emperor as to the cause of this, T'a Chi asserted it was because the young men had more marrow in their bones. The Emperor would not accept this explanation, and in order to decide the dispute commanded a number of old and young men to be seized, and their legs broken and examined.

**The Rise
of
Chou (B.C. 1400).**

At this time Wên Wang,⁵ the Earl of the feudatory state of Chou, began to exercise a powerful influence in the Empire. For presuming to criticize the Emperor for his misrule, he was thrown into prison, and released only after a large sum of money had been paid by his son for his ransom.

After Wên Wang's death, his son Wu Wang⁶ eager to call the Emperor to account for his tyranny, gathered a large army and invaded the Imperial domain. A battle was fought in the Northern

part of the modern Province of Honan, and although Chou Hsin had 700,000 troops under his command, he was disastrously defeated. He fled to the "Stag Tower," and there, arraying himself in his imperial robes, set fire to the building and was burned to death. According to one account, his body was afterwards discovered among the ruins, and the head cut off and exposed on a flag-pole. When the soldiers of the victorious army entered the Capital, they were received by the people with unbounded delight. T'a Chi was seized and executed, and so great is the hatred in which her memory is held that she is often referred to as the incarnation of a she wolf. Wu Wang won the heart of the people by issuing orders for the free distribution of grain among the poor, and for the release of all those who had been unjustly imprisoned.

**Land Tenure
during the Shang
or Yin Dynasty.**

During the Shang or Yin Dynasty land was allotted on the following plan. Nine squares of equal size each containing 100 *mow* (about 16 acres) were apportioned out to eight families; each family was entitled to cultivate a square, and the ninth and central square was cultivated by all in common and its produce paid as a tax to the Government. The Chinese character representing this system is 井, meaning a "well," and if enclosed on the four sides

(thus

) will furnish a diagram of the allotment.

**The Development
of the
Government
during this
Period.**

In the Shang or Yin Dynasty the rule of the Great Tribal Chieftain developed into that of the Emperor. As the boundaries of the Empire were enlarged, the Ruler naturally became more powerful and was regarded with more reverence by the people. The idea that he ruled by divine right gained strength in the minds of those over whom he held sway, and his person was regarded as sacred. It was not long before he was looked upon as the specially anointed one, "the Son of Heaven."

CHAPTER IV.

The Feudal Period. (B.C. 1122-255)**The Founder
of the
Chou Dynasty
(B.C. 1122).**

Wu Wang, after defeating Chou Hsin, founded a new Dynasty, called the Chou, from the name of the principality over which he had formerly ruled in the modern Province of Shensi. His title of Wu Wang means "the warrior Prince."

Although a usurper, he is ranked as one of the exemplary rulers of China. His reputation spread so far that the kings of Corea¹ and Cochín China² sent embassies with rich gifts to the Imperial court.

**The Development
of the
Feudal System.**

The Emperor rewarded those who had helped him in the struggle with Chou Hsin by grants of territory, and titles of honor such as Duke, Marquis, Earl, Count, and Baron.³ Thus the Empire came to consist of a collection of small states, each of which was governed by its own petty ruler, who paid an uncertain fealty to the Central Government. The political condition of China at this time was not unlike that of the German confederation in the eighteenth century. In course of time some of these vassal kingdoms became so powerful that the rulers assumed the title of Kings. The whole period of the Chou Dynasty was taken up with the conflicts between these petty Kingdoms, at first one gaining the ascendancy, and then another. Of these Kingdoms the most important were the Lu,⁴ the Wei,⁵ the Ch'i,⁶ the Chin,⁷ the Ch'u,⁸ and the Ch'in.⁹ Finally, as we shall presently narrate, the Duke of Ch'in succeeded in overthrowing the reigning Dynasty and in usurping the imperial throne [*see* Map No. 3].

**The Reign of
Ch'êng Wang**

(B.C. 1115-1078)

Wu Wang was succeeded by his son Ch'êng Wang¹ who did much to establish the Dynasty on a firm basis. As he was only thirteen years of age when he came to the throne, his uncle the Duke of Chou,² a man of great ability and strict integrity, was appointed regent. By him the young Emperor was carefully instructed and prepared for the responsibilities he was about to assume. It was also through the efforts of the Duke of Chou that a rebellion of the descendants of the former Dynasty was successfully suppressed.

The capital was removed from Hao³ in the modern Province of Shensi (near the present Sianfu⁴) to Loyi⁵ in Honan for the reason that the latter city was more central, and thus more conveniently situated for the assembling of the chiefs of the feudal states.

Ch'êng Wang made a royal progress throughout the different parts of his domains and in this way impressed his subjects with the idea of the unity of the Empire, notwithstanding its division into so many separate states.

It was at this time also that a mint was established for the coining of copper money like the modern cash.

**The
Emperor Mu⁶
(B.C. 1001-946).**

Among the Emperors of the Chou Dynasty only a few call for special mention. The immediate successors of Wu Wang were men of ability and ruled the country with a strong hand, but those who followed were for the most part weak and incompetent. The Dynasty managed to last as long as it did, some eight hundred years, because of the jealousy between the numerous feudatory States, each being anxious to keep the others from becoming too powerful, and resisting the attempt of any one state to usurp the Imperial Throne.

According to tradition, the Emperor Mu issued a decree introducing the custom of the commutation of offences by the payment of fines. He had precedent for this in the reigns of some of the previous Emperors, but he was the first to sanction it as a regular system. Whenever there was only probable evidence of an offence having been committed, the punishment might be

commuted by the payment of a sum of money by the accused party. The most prominent characteristic of the Emperor Mu was his restless love of travelling beyond the confines of the Empire. He made several journeys to the West, and thus came in contact with Western Asiatic civilization.

**The
Emperor Yu¹
(B.C. 781-770).**

The Emperor Yu, a thoroughly depraved man, was under the influence of a famous beauty called Pao-ssü.² So completely was he enamored of her charms that he made her his consort, put away the Empress and disinherited his own son as heir-apparent in favour of hers. Nature is said to have shown its disapproval of this unnatural conduct by an eclipse of the sun, which took place on August 29th, B.C. 776. This occurrence is of historical importance, as it gives us a fixed date by which the chronology of many other events has been computed. We may say that from this date the historical period really begins.

The influence of Pao-ssü was fatal, and, like the famous beauties who had caused the downfall of the Hsia and Shang Dynasties, she led the Emperor into innumerable acts of folly. As she was a woman who seldom manifested her pleasure at anything, the Emperor invented the following expedient to cause a smile to come to her face. He commanded all the beacons throughout the empire to be lighted. As these were only lit in times of great danger as a signal for the Feudal Princes to come to the defence of the Empire, the Nobles and Chiefs of the various States with their retainers hastened with all speed to the Capital, to find on their arrival that no danger was imminent, and that the Emperor's reason for summoning them was to cause merriment to the proud Pao-ssü by their discomfiture.

After a short time, the Capital was invaded by the Duke of Hsin,³ the father of the Empress who had been rejected when the Emperor became enamored of Pao-ssü. Then the Emperor in his extremity ordered the beacons to be lighted again, but the feudatory Princes, fearing it was another false cry of "wolf," refused to answer the summons. The Emperor accordingly found himself unable to offer any effectual resistance. In the assault that followed he himself was slain, his capital plundered, and Pao-ssü

was carried off into captivity, where she afterwards strangled herself. P'ing Wang,¹ the son whom he had disinherited, was raised to the Imperial Throne.

**The growth of
the power of the
States of Ch'in.**

Owing to the constant warring between the different States, the latter part of the Chou Dynasty was a period of great confusion. During the time of disorder, the State of Ch'in secured a leading position. It was situated in the Southern part of the modern Province of Kansuh,² and being subject to constant attacks from the wild Tartar Tribes, who sought an entrance into the Empire from the North-West was obliged to keep a large standing army in the field, and thus increased its military strength. The independent spirit of its Duke was displayed by his building an altar to Shang Ti, and presenting the sacrifices which the Emperor alone had the right to offer. Gradually the State of Ch'in obtained control over the other feudatory States, and became the foremost rival of the central government.

**Downfall of the
Chou Dynasty.**

Nan Wang³ (B.C. 314), the last Emperor of the Chou Dynasty, fearing for his own safety, formed a league with many of the chief nobles against the State of Ch'in. The powerful Duke of Ch'in, for the sake of self-preservation, felt obliged to go to war with his suzerain, and instead of waiting to be attacked, advanced with his army into the Imperial territory, and gave battle to the forces assembling to invade his own State. The Emperor was utterly routed and was taken captive. He was then compelled to kneel before his captor, to beg for mercy, and to surrender a large part of his possessions.

He did not long survive these indignities, dying shortly afterward of a broken heart. Although for a time the Duke of Ch'in allowed a representative of the Chou Dynasty to rule nominally over the Eastern part of the Empire, yet the real power was in his own hands, and it was not long before the Chou Dynasty came to an end.

**The Trio of Famous
Philosophers.**

The Chou Dynasty is rendered especially memorable from the fact that during this period lived the three famous philosophers who have had the greatest influence on Chinese morals and civilization.

Lao Tzŭ
(B.C. 604).

The first of these was Lao Tzŭ,¹ the founder of the system of philosophy called Taoism.² He was born B C 604, in the Eastern part of the modern Province of Honan, and lived at about the same time as Socrates, Plato and Aristotle were teaching in Greece. Among the marvellous stories told of him, is that at his birth he had the appearance of an old man, and hence obtained his name Lao Tzŭ. which, literally translated, means "the old teacher." He held the position of keeper of the archives at the Imperial court, but becoming disheartened by the disorder and lawlessness of his times, retired from office and led the life of a recluse, giving himself up to philosophical speculation. He is the reputed author of the *Tao Tê Ching*,³ but some scholars consider the book to be a later composition.

The teaching of this book may be compared to the abstruse speculations of Neo-Platonism. "Tao" probably means impersonal Nature, which permeates all things, and from which all things are evolved. According to his teaching, true peace comes from ceasing to strive and by living in harmony with the leadings of "Tao." The cause of disorder in the world is the development by man of what is artificial, and unnatural, and the only remedy is a return to the "Tao." His philosophy was too abstruse to be generally accepted by the Chinese, and his ideas have been perverted to such an extent that they have become the basis of the most degraded and superstitious cult in the country.

Confucius⁴
(B.C. 552).

Confucius, the greatest of the trio, was born B.C. 552, in the feudal State of Lu,⁵ situated in the Southern part of the modern Province of Shan-tung. As a youth he was of a serious disposition, and his mind was bent on learning. He set himself the task of collecting all the information possible in regard to the Ancient Worthies, and taught that if the rulers would imitate the examples of the Emperors Yao and Shun, peace and order would be restored. At the age of twenty-two he gathered about him a band of disciples, and spent his time in instructing them in the principles of morality and good government.

At the age of fifty he was employed by the Duke of Lu as keeper of the public granaries, and shortly afterward was put in charge of all the public lands. He acquitted himself so well in the performance of these duties that he was promoted to be Minister of Justice,¹ and finally was made Prime Minister.² While he occupied this last office, the State of Lu was exceedingly prosperous and became one of the most powerful of the feudatory States. This excited the jealousy of the other feudal Princes, and induced the Duke of the State of Ch'i to resort to the following stratagem to bring about the downfall of this exemplary Prime Minister. He sent as a present to the Duke of Lu eighty beautiful concubines, and one hundred and twenty-five horses. Upon the receipt of this gift, the Duke of Lu gave himself up to a life of pleasure and sensual indulgence, and began to neglect the affairs of State. Confucius, after waiting a time, at last realized that his influence for good was at an end, and accordingly determined to leave the State and to seek for some other ruler who would put his teaching into practice. For a space of twelve years he wandered from State to State. He was treated by most of the feudal Princes with great discountenance, and at times even his life was in danger. Finally, he returned to the State of Lu, and there spent the remainder of his days in literary work. He refused to take office again and devoted his time to the editing of the ancient classics. He died in B.C. 480. It was only after his death that people turned to him as to a great teacher of mankind, and nearly three centuries elapsed before he was raised to the supreme position of honor and reverence he now holds in the minds of his countrymen. In as much as his chief aim was to conserve the beliefs and customs of antiquity, the respect paid to his teachings helps to account for the development of conservatism in China.

Mencius*
(B.C. 372).

Mencius, the third of the trio, was born in the feudal State of Lu, in the year B.C. 372. While

Confucius did not claim to be an originator but only a transmitter, Mencius was an independent and original thinker. He expounded the teachings of his great Master, and also added his own reflections on the nature of man and the

essentials of good government. He held an extremely optimistic view as to the original goodness of human nature and believed that it was possible for man by his own efforts to reach a state of moral perfection.

His sayings are now included among the principal classics of Chinese Literature, and he himself is regarded as being second only to Confucius. In spite of constant warfare during this period, there was considerable advance in literature, philosophy and arts. In addition to the trio of famous philosophers already mentioned, there were many other original thinkers such as the hedonist Yang Chu,¹ the altruist Mo-ti,² and the great interpreter of Taoism, Chwang-tsze.³

CHAPTER V.

Period of Centralization (B.C. 221-206).

**The Great
Emperor Shih
Huang Ti
(B.C. 221-209).**

After the deposition of Nan Wang the Dukes of Ch'in, although virtually exercising the power of the Emperor, did not at first dare to assume the imperial insignia. They had many foes to contend with, and were engaged in constant wars

with the other powerful princes, who resented their arrogating to themselves the position of lordship over the Empire. At the close of his life, the Duke Ch'ao Hsiang Wang¹ offered the imperial sacrifices to Heaven, thus indicating that he regarded himself as the occupant of the Dragon Throne.

After several short reigns, Shih Huang Ti (often referred to as Ch'in Shih Huang) succeeded to the throne. He is the most important ruler of this brief Dynasty, which lasted only fifty years. He assumed the title of Huang Ti, meaning Heavenly Ruler, and thus placed himself on a level with the three rulers of the Mythical Period, Fu Hsi, Shên Nung, and Huang Ti. The word Shih means "first" and indicates that he claimed to be the first real Emperor. The title Huang Ti has always been used since his time to designate the ruler of China.

The Dynasty he established is known as the Ch'in.² It is interesting to note that the name China is probably derived from this word, because the first Westerners who became acquainted with China spoke of the Chinese as the people of the land of Ch'in, which was later corrupted into China. The Chinese themselves, as we have said, generally refer to their country as the Middle Kingdom.

The capital was established at Hsien Yang³ near the modern Sianfu in Shensi. Shih Huang Ti was only thirteen years of age

when he ascended the throne, but soon showed that he possessed remarkable sagacity and strength of character. Considering the feudal system of Government a perpetual source of weakness to the Empire, and a constant menace to the imperial prerogative, he determined on its abolishment. He bent all his energies to the task of bringing the feudal States into submission, and then divided the country into thirty-six Provinces, setting over each three officers, who were directly responsible to himself for the way in which they conducted their provincial governments. This system continued in its general features until the Empire was converted into a Republic.

**The Extent
of
his Empire.**

After the work of subjugation had been completed, his Empire extended from Chihli on the North to the Yangtse River and the modern Province of Chekiang¹ on the South; and from the Yellow Sea on the East to the modern Province of Szechwan on the West.

**The Destruction
of the Classical
Literature
(B.C. 213).**

Another event for which his reign is memorable was the attempt to destroy all the classical literature. He was led to take this step by the advice of his Prime Minister Li-ssü,² who represented to him that the scholars were a great source of mischief in the Empire, because during the period of confusion in the latter part of the preceding Dynasty they had been wont to sell their services to the highest bidder without respect to the welfare of the Empire as a whole, and probably would continue to follow the same practice in the future. The real reason for his dislike of the *literati* was their conservatism which led them to throw the weight of their influence against all the reforms the Emperor was desirous of instituting. They were always recalling the halcyon days of antiquity and pointing out the superiority of the past to the new *régime* recently inaugurated.

The Emperor, anxious to blot out the claims of antiquity, and to make history begin with himself, issued an edict ordering all the existing literature in the country, with the exception of works on astrology, divination, medicine, and husbandry to be collected and burnt. It was a difficult decree to enforce, and undoubtedly many

of the books were concealed and saved from the holocaust. When the Emperor learnt that some of the scholars had used treasonable language in regard to this order, he condemned four hundred and sixty of them to death, to serve as a salutary warning to others. According to tradition these men were buried alive.

For this action Shih Huang Ti has been regarded by the Chinese generally as a most impious tyrant. They have failed to grasp the real significance of his action and have not perceived that "his motive for burning the books of Confucius was to obliterate the feudal system from the memory of China."

With great and commendable zeal, the Emperor exerted himself to advance the material prosperity of his country. Roads were built in all directions, and rivers hitherto impassable were spanned by bridges.

Owing to the constant incursions of the Tartar Tribes on the Northern frontiers, he completed an enormous wall on the Northern boundary of the Empire. It extended from 120° to 100° E. Longitude and was about 1,500 miles in length.

Before the time of Shih Huang Ti walls had been constructed on the Northern frontier, but these were now united and their fortifications strengthened and improved. The portion now generally visited by travellers, thirty miles from Peking, is probably a more modern structure, and not the wall of two thousand years ago. His object in building it may be compared to that of the Romans in the time of the Emperor Hadrian, when they constructed a wall across the Northern part of Britain, to oppose the inroads of the Scots and Picts (A.D. 121).

Shih Huang Ti, notwithstanding his ability as a statesman, was a slave to superstitious fears. He was in much dread of death, and frequently consulted magicians to discover an elixir that would ensure a long life. One of the magicians told him he was pursued by evil spirits, and, in order to escape their influence, must change to sleep in a different room of his palace every night, the place where he intended to take his repose being kept a profound

The Great Wall
(B.C. 214).

**The Superstition
of the Emperor**
(B.C. 211).

secret. Terrified by this information, he immediately gave orders for the erection of an enormous palace,¹ to contain an immense number of sleeping apartments. Several hundred thousands of criminals are said to have been engaged upon the work, and an incredible sum of money was expended for the satisfaction of his whim. He wished the building to contain so many rooms that the evil-minded demons desirous of shortening his days would be completely mystified.

**The Fall
of the
Ch'in Dynasty.**

After the death of Shih Huang Ti, the Ch'in Dynasty lasted only a few years. A civil rebellion broke out which resulted in giving the throne to Liu Pang,² the Prince of Han (a State occupying geographically the modern Southern Shensi and Western Honan). Although the Dynasty had lasted so brief a period, yet it accomplished the difficult task of consolidating the Feudal States into one great Empire. This union did not last, however, and was not strong enough to hold together the various discordant factions. Indeed China had annexed and conquered more territory than it was able to digest and assimilate. Nevertheless the temporary cohesion was sufficient to make it possible for the Empire to enter on a course of further conquest, and to present a determined front to the incursions of the barbarous tribes on the North. These attacks were soon to become more frequent, and the account of them brings us to another Period in Chinese History.

DIVISION II.

**The First Struggle with the Tartars
(B.C. 206—A.D. 589).**

CHAPTER VI.

**The Han Dynasty (B.C. 206—A.D. 25)
Also Styled the Former or Western Han.**

**The Emperor
Kao Ti or Kao Tzu'
(B.C. 206-194).**

Liu Pang when he ascended the throne took the dynastic title of Kao Ti, that is, "the August Emperor" and named his Dynasty the Han, from the small state in Shensi over which he had ruled, and from the River Han near which he had been born. This may be considered the first national dynasty, and even to the present day the Chinese, with the exception of the Cantonese, commonly speak of themselves as the "Sons of Han."

The Emperor began his reign by pacific measures, and conciliated the scholars by repealing the decree issued by Shih Huang Ti, for the destruction of the classical literature.* A search was instituted, for all the books which had escaped the flames, and honor was again paid to the teaching of the Sages. Kao Ti was the first of the Chinese Emperors to offer sacrifice at the tomb of Confucius.

The Capital was established at Changan near the present Sianfu in Shensi. This locality was chosen as the Emperor desired to be in a position where he could watch the movements of the Northern Barbarians, whose inroads from this time began to assume serious proportions.

The wild tribes disturbing the peace of the Empire were the Hsiung-nu,¹ inhabitants of Mongolia. These people were of the same stock as the Huns² and Turks³ who afterwards made inroads into Europe, the Huns becoming the great scourge of Europe under the leadership of Attila in A.D. 445.

They were a nomadic people, and spent most of their time on horseback, saying that their country was the backs of their horses. They moved from place to place with their flocks and herds, always in search of fresh pastures. Horses, cattle, and sheep were their usual possessions, but they occasionally had camels, asses, mules, and other peculiar breeds of the equine family. They had no cities or towns, but a certain portion of the territory passed over in their migrations was assigned to each tribe, each tent or household being allotted a piece of land for its exclusive use. They were uncultured and had no written language. Their children, when mere babies, were taught to ride on the backs of sheep, and to shoot small animals and birds with little bows and arrows; and as they grew older they practised their skill on foxes and larger animals. They fed upon flesh and milk, and used the skins of animals for clothing. They always fought on horseback, throwing their enemy into confusion by their swift and sudden attacks.

At this time they had spread over the Northern part of the modern Provinces of Shensi and Chih-li.

A distinction may be made between the Eastern and Western Tartars. The Hsiung-nu belong to the Western branch of the Tartars, and were the ancestors of the Turks, the Ouigars,⁴ the Khigiz,⁵ the Mongols, etc. The Eastern Tartars were known as the Tunghu,⁶ Tunguses,⁷ or Hsien-pei,⁸ and were the ancestors of the Cathagans or Khitans,⁹ the Manchus, and the Coreans.

During the reign of the Emperor Kao Ti an immense number of Hsiung-nu, under the command of a chief named Mao-tun,¹⁰ by skirting the Western end of the Great Wall, made a foray into Chinese terri-

**The Hsiung-nu
or
Hun Tartars.**

**Eastern and
Western Tartars.**

**The Invasion of
Mao-tun.**

tory, and entering what is now the Province of Szechwan carried off a large quantity of booty. The Emperor Kao Ti took command of the army sent to resist them. Finding himself hemmed in on all sides, he was obliged to take shelter in the city of P'ing¹ in Shansi, and was there besieged. The city was so closely invested that the Emperor was in great danger of falling into the hands of the enemy. In this emergency, acting on the advice of one of his ministers, he resorted to the following stratagem. He had an artist draw the picture of a beautiful maiden, and sent it by the hand of a trusty messenger to the wife of Mao-tun, who had accompanied the expedition, with the message that it was the portrait of a famous beauty of China about to be presented to her husband. Mao-tun's wife, actuated by jealousy and anxious to keep her husband from being enamored of the charms of this Chinese beauty entreated and finally persuaded him to raise the siege and withdraw his troops into his own territory.

After the lapse of a few years the Hsiung-nu made another invasion of Chinese territory, and this time the Emperor was forced to buy off their leader by giving him as a consort one of the beauties of his harem, pretending it was his daughter, and by promising an annual subsidy, payable in silks, rice, and wine.

**The immediate
Successors of
Kao Ti.**

The remainder of the reign of Kao Ti was occupied in suppressing internal rebellions incited by the same men who had helped him obtain the throne.

Upon his death, he was succeeded by his son, Hui,² a lad of eleven years, (B.C. 194). The mother of this boy, Lu-chih,³ a vindictive and unscrupulous woman, ruled as Regent, and, after the death of the young Emperor, managed for some time to keep the Imperial power in her own hands. She plotted to found a new Dynasty composed of her own kinsmen, but in this was unsuccessful. Upon her death, the great officers of the Empire unanimously agreed to elevate to the throne a son of the late Emperor, by one of his concubines. This Emperor, known in history as Wên Ti (B.C. 179), was a humane ruler and modified the five great punishments (the branding of the face, excision of the nose, chopping off the feet, castration, and beheading) so as to make them somewhat less barbarous; and flogging was largely

substituted in their place. He also encouraged literature, and made a further search for the books which had escaped destruction during the reign of Shih Huang Ti.

During his reign the Empire was troubled by the repeated raids of the Hsiung-nu, and although immense armies were raised to oppose them, yet little was accomplished in the way of effectually stemming their advances.

He was succeeded by his son Ching Ti¹ (B.C. 156-140), who in turn was succeeded by his son Wu Ti² (B.C. 140-86).

**The Reign of
Wu Ti.**

During the reign of Wu Ti, the Han Dynasty reached the zenith of its power, and the Empire was greatly enlarged.

An attempt was made to destroy the Hsiung-nu by a clever ruse. They were invited to take possession of a border city, reported to be the centre of a district containing many gold mines. The plan of the Emperor was to entice the barbarian chieftain with his whole army into an ambush, and accordingly in the neighbourhood of the territory offered to the Hsiung-nu, a large Chinese force was concealed with instructions to fall upon the enemy as soon as they entered the trap. The Tartar chieftain, greedy for the expected wealth, nibbled at the bait and with a hundred thousand men passed through the Great Wall and advanced to a place thirty miles distant from the locality he was invited to occupy. On the march, he noticed, however, many herds of cattle grazing in the fields without keepers, and this unusual sight aroused his suspicions. Fearing false play, he promptly retired from the dangerous situation and, returning to his own borders, frustrated the plot of the Emperor.

The Hsiung-nu, indignant at this intended treachery, took vengeance on the Chinese by further incursions into the Northern part of the Empire.

Another important event of this reign was the removal of a Tartar tribe called the Yoeh-chi³ from their ancient seat in the modern Province of Kansu, to the West. They were forced to this migration, owing to the frequent attacks of the Hsiung-nu. This may be said to have been the beginning of the great Western

movement of the Tartars which continued for so many centuries, and which had such disastrous consequences for the countries of Eastern Europe. This tribe settled in the country now called Bokhara,¹ and remained there until, many years later, they were gathered up in the great Western march of the Huns, and hurled in conjunction with them on the Roman Empire.

**Enlargement of
the Empire
during the Reign
of the
Emperor Wu Ti.**

The reign of Wu Ti is celebrated for several great military conquests. On the North-West, he defeated and subjugated the Ordos,² and annexed the whole of the modern Kansu. On the South, he added to the Empire the modern Province of Kwangtung (inhabited at that time by a race akin to the Annamese),³ Tonquin,⁴ Hainan, Kwangsi, and part of Kweichow. On the West, the whole of Szechwan and a part of Yunnan were annexed, and on the North-East the Northern part of Corea was subjugated.

The reason for undertaking the conquest of Corea was a desire to turn the flank of the Hsiung-nu and thus keep them from entering the Empire from that quarter.

These conquests had the result of making China further acquainted with the countries of the West, and at this period intercourse began with Parthia,⁵ Mesopotamia,⁶ and the Greek Dynasties of Bactria and Afghanistan.⁷ An attempt was made to reach India by way of Yunnan, and Hindoo missionaries, for the first time, found their way to China. The Roman Empire became known to the Chinese and was referred to by the name of the great Ts'in.

During this period there was much literary activity and there were many great writers of prose and poetry. Among these was the Chinese Herodotus, Sze Ma Chien.

**The Rebellion
of Wang Mang⁸
(A.D. 9).**

Passing over several of the Emperors of the Han Dynasty we come to the reign of P'ing Ti⁹ (A.D. 1-6), at the beginning of the Christian era.

P'ing Ti being a weak ruler the chief power was seized by an unscrupulous minister, named Wang Mang, who plotted to usurp the throne. On New Year's Day, when he presented himself with

the other Princes to pay his respects to the Emperor, he contrived to put poison in the Imperial wine-cup. In consequence of drinking the draught the Emperor was seized with violent paroxysms and died shortly after in great agony. Wang Mang, by simulating grief at the decease of the Emperor, was able for a time to deceive the people as to his true aims. He caused a child two years of age, Ju Tzu Ying,¹ to be raised to the throne, and himself to be appointed Regent. His intention of usurpation soon became apparent, but as the control of the army was in his hands the Princes of the House of Han were powerless to offer any effective opposition. After being allowed to reign for three years the little Emperor was set aside and Wang Mang openly assumed the title of "New Emperor"² announcing that he had received a revelation from Kao Ti, the founder of the Han Dynasty, sanctioning his succession.

This step roused the Princes of the House of Han to rebellion, and the whole of the reign of the usurper was taken up in wars with them and in struggles with the Hsüung-nu, who also refused to regard him as the lawful Emperor. It was a time of the greatest disorder. A band of marauders, known as the "Red Eyebrows,"³ from their custom of dyeing their eyebrows, arose in what is now the province of Shantung, and, out of pretence of loyalty to the Hans, committed great depredations throughout the country.

At last, two cousins, Princes of the House of Han, collected an army of one hundred thousand foot soldiers and an equal number of cavalry, and advanced against Wang Mang. The usurper met them with a much larger force, but in the battle that ensued was disastrously defeated and obliged to flee to Changan. Thither he was pursued and, in despair, as the victorious army entered the city, concealed himself in a tower. He was discovered, dragged from his place of hiding, and beheaded; and afterwards his body was cut into a thousand pieces, and his head exposed in the market-place.

The Han Dynasty was then restored, one of the successful generals, named Liu Hsiu,⁴ being raised to the throne.

The restored Dynasty is known as the Later or Eastern Han.

CHAPTER VII.

The Later or Eastern Han Dynasty (A.D. 25-214).

**The Reign
of Kuang Wu Ti¹
(A.D. 25-58).**

Liu Hsiu, upon ascending the throne, took the title of Kuang Wu Ti or "The Glorious Martial Emperor." On account of Changan being invested by the rebels, he removed the Capital to Loyang,² in the modern Province of Honan. The Empire was divided into thirteen provinces instead of thirty-six, over which officials corresponding to Satraps were appointed to rule.

By employing vigorous measures, he succeeded in crushing the "Red Eye-brows." In one of the many engagements with them he made use of the following plot. He disguised several thousands of his soldiers as "Red Eye-brow" rebels, and placed them in ambush near the battle-field. During the course of the battle they suddenly made their appearance and were hailed by the rebels as reinforcements. When the conflict was at its height, these seeming rebels threw off their disguise, and the "Red Eye-brows" found themselves caught between two hostile armies, and were forced to capitulate. The Emperor, in order to conciliate these insurgents, pardoned their leaders and appointed them to posts in the government service.

The reign of Kuang Wu Ti was chiefly occupied in warring against the different bands of rebels, which had arisen throughout the country against the usurper Wang Mang.

Among the most notable wars of his reign was one against female chieftain, named Cheng-ts'ê,³ the ruler of the Northern part of Annam (modern Tonquin), who had refused to pay the customary tribute to the Empire. The struggle of this Chieftainess for

independence, like that of Boadicea in Britain against the Romans, was put down with ruthless severity, and both she and her sister¹ were beheaded.

Ming Ti²
(A D. 58-76).
Introduction of
Buddhism³
into China.

Kuang Wu Ti was succeeded by his son Ming Ti, in whose reign Buddhism was first introduced with imperial sanction into China. In the time of Wu Ti, some two hundred years before, a golden image, supposed to have been the image of Buddha, had been taken along with other plunder from the Hsiung-nu, and also at about the same time, as we have already stated, some Hindoo missionaries had found their way into China; but it was not until the reign of Ming Ti that the Chinese obtained any extended knowledge of the tenets of the religion of India. The Emperor Ming Ti had a dream, in which there appeared to him the figure of a golden man. Upon seeking an interpretation, he was told that a wonderful saint had arisen in the West, named Fo (Buddha),⁴ and that the dream referred to him. Consequently, the Emperor sent an embassy to India to make investigations in regard to the teachings of this saint. The envoys on their return brought back with them a copy of a Sutra,⁵ one of the Buddhist Classics, and also some Buddhist priests whom they had persuaded to accompany them. The spread of the new religion began in this way. At first, however, it made but little progress, and it did not succeed in gaining a firm foothold in China until three hundred years later.

One of the most important works of the reign of this Emperor was the construction of a dyke, thirty miles long, as a barrier to check the overflow of the Yellow River. It is stated that as long as this was kept in repair there was a cessation of the periodic floods.

Ho Ti
(A.D. 89-106).

In the reign of Ho Ti,⁶ China possessed many able generals, who were engaged in expeditions against the Hsiung-nu. The Tartars by this time had extended their conquests as far as Central Asia; and in their campaigns against them the Chinese generals led their forces across the T'ien Shan (Heavenly Mountains)⁷ and also penetrated

as far as the shores of the Caspian Sea. It is reported that on one of these expeditions the Chinese army reached the Eastern boundaries of the Roman Empire.

Ling Ti
(A.D. 168-190).
Struggle with
Eastern Tartars.

Passing over five Emperors, we come to the reign of the Emperor Ling Ti. While this Emperor was on the throne, the Tung-hu or Hsien-pei a branch of the Eastern Tartars, who had gained temporary ascendancy over the Hsiung-nu (Western Tartars), made an incursion into Chinese territory. A brave and skilful general named Ch'ao Pao² was dispatched against them. During the campaign the mother and wife of the general fell into the hands of the enemy, and when the two hostile armies were drawn up for battle, the Tung-hu brought them forth, and placing them in full view of the Chinese army, declared that unless Ch'ao Pao would surrender they would murder them before his eyes. Ch'ao Pao was confronted with the terrible alternative of either acting in a way that would be disloyal to his Emperor or of grossly violating the principle of filial piety. After a severe mental struggle, and at the earnest behest of his mother, he finally decided to sacrifice her and his wife in the interests of his country.

When the barbarians heard of this determination, they slaughtered the two women in sight of all the Chinese troops. Infuriated by the spectacle, the Chinese made a desperate onslaught and completely routed the enemy. The fact of having caused the death of his own mother so preyed upon his mind that Ch'ao Pao died shortly afterward of grief and remorse.

The
Encouragement
of Literature.

The Emperor Ling Ti was a patron of Literature, and in A.D. 175 caused the Five Classics to be engraved on stone and set up at the door of the Imperial College. He patronized scholars skilled in calligraphy and versification, and as an encouragement he conferred official rank upon those who excelled in these arts. As a result the scholars of the Empire henceforth bent all their energies toward the cultivation and improvement of their style in essay writing and poetic composition.

**The Three Great
Traitors of
China.**

During the Han Dynasty, there arose successively in China three men who are known as the three greatest traitors of Chinese History. These were Wang Mang, Tung Cho,¹ and Ts'ao Ts'ao.² To the career of the first of these, Wang Mang, we have already referred, and we must now give a brief account of the other two.

**The Traitor
Tung Cho.**

Tung Cho was a General in the Imperial army, and during a period of confusion caused by an attempt on the part of one of the factions in the Court to massacre the Imperial eunuchs, who had become very powerful, he seized the Imperial power for himself, dethroned the reigning Emperor, and placed Hsien Ti,³ (A.D. 190-214) a boy Prince, upon the throne. This youth was weak, mentally and physically, and was a mere puppet in the hands of Tung Cho, who occupied the position of Prime Minister, and thus virtually ruled the Empire.

The Capital was removed from Loyang to its former site at Changan. His usurpation was not accepted quietly, and rebellions sprang up all over the country. Tung Cho suppressed these with the utmost severity and cruelty, putting to death all whom he suspected of disloyalty to himself. He gave an appearance of legality to all his acts by announcing that they were performed with the consent and approval of the Emperor. As the result of his high-handed tyranny, he became universally detested, and finally was slain by one of his own lieutenants, a man named Lu-pu,⁴ whom he had adopted as his son. His death, however, instead of bringing peace to the Empire only increased the disorder; and at this juncture, the third of the three great traitors, Ts'ao Ts'ao, made his appearance at the Capital with three hundred thousand men, and, forcibly taking possession of the person of the Emperor, assumed the control of the Government.

CHAPTER VIII.

The Period of the Three Kingdoms at the close of the Han Dynasty (A.D. 214-223).

The Character of the Period.

This period, generally known as that of "The Three Kingdoms," is looked upon by the Chinese as the most romantic in their history, and may be compared in some respects to the age of chivalry in Europe.

The story of those who at this time played a leading part has been popularized in the great historical novel called "The Three Kingdoms," the exciting incidents of which are often acted on the stage or recited by the village story-tellers. The accounts of the period abound in many marvellous adventures and hair-breadth escapes, and it is difficult to know how much is to be attributed to the imagination of the writers and how much was actual occurrence.

The Three Kingdoms.

The period derives its name from the fact that at this time the Empire was divided into three separate Kingdoms. The first was the Kingdom of Wei,¹ which comprised the Central and Northern provinces, and had as its capital the city of Loyang. The second was the Kingdom of Wu,² and consisted of the provinces South of the Yangtze River, the modern Hunan, Hupeh,³ Kiangsu,⁴ and Chekiang, with the capital at Nanking.⁵ The third was the Kingdom of Shu,⁶ and included the Western part of the Empire, the modern province of Szechwan, with the Capital at Chengtu⁷ [see Map 4].

Ts'ao Ts'ao as Prime Minister virtually ruled over the Kingdom of Wei, and finally forced the Emperor Hsien Ti to

abdicate. Upon the death of Ts'ao Ts'ao, his son Ts'ao Pei,¹ after putting Hsien Ti to death, ascended the throne, and declared himself Emperor. The Kingdom of Wu was ruled by an able General named Sun Ch'uan,² and the Kingdom of Shu by a Prince named Liu Pei,³ who claimed to be a descendant of the Emperors of the Han Dynasty, and so the rightful heir to the throne. The Dynasty established by the latter is known in history as the Minor Han, and is recognized as the lawful line during this period of confusion. Liu Pei was assisted in his campaigns against his enemies by two famous generals named Chang Fei⁴ and Kuan Yu.⁵ These three men sealed their agreement to be faithful to each other until death in the famous "peach-garden oath," by drinking blood drawn from one another's arms. The general Kuan Yu, on account of his great prowess in battle, was afterward deified in the Ming Dynasty (A.D. 1594) as the god of war, and is now worshipped in China under the name of "Kuan Ti."⁶

**The Wars
between the
Three Kingdoms.**

Liu Pei had as his Prime Minister a man named Chu-ko Liang,⁷ who was celebrated for his great sagacity and for his ability as a strategist. To him are attributed many mechanical inventions, such as the "wooden oxen and running horses"⁸ as means of transport, and a bow for shooting many arrows⁹ at a time. He also improved and perfected the "Eight Dispositions,"¹⁰ a series of military tactics. Contrary to the advice of his Prime Minister, Liu Pei determined to lead an expedition into the Kingdom of Wu. He was incited to take this step by the desire of seeking revenge for the death of his sworn brother Kuan Yu, who had been slain by one of Sun Ch'uan's generals. The expedition resulted disastrously, and his army was only saved from complete annihilation by the clever strategy of Chu-ko Liang.

Liu Pei upon his death was succeeded by his son Hou Chu,¹¹ who made peace with the Kingdom of Wu.

After peace had been made between the Western and the Southern Kingdom, preparations were begun for an expedition against the Kingdom of Wei. Before leading an army into the

territory of Ts'ao Pei, it was deemed advisable to invade Burmah,¹ lest while the army was absent the Burmese should seize the opportunity of making an attack on the Kingdom of Shu. The Burmese were defeated and forced to submit, and then, this danger of an invasion from the rear having been removed, the expedition started for the Kingdom of Wei.

It the meantime Ts'ao Pei died and was succeeded by his son Ts'ao Jui,² who took the imperial title of Ming Ti (A.D. 227). The attempt on the part of the Kingdom of Shu to conquer the Kingdom of Wei proved a failure, the army of Shu, under the command of Chu-ko Liang, being put to flight by the army of Wei, commanded by Ssü-ma I.³

In the course of his retreat Chu-ko Liang resorted to a ruse that won for him the admiration of his countrymen. With the handful of men still left to him he occupied a deserted walled town. As the enemy drew near in pursuit, he commanded some of his men to throw open the gates of the city and to stand before them with brooms in their hands as if engaged in sweeping the streets. He himself mounted the city wall, and seated in the tower over the gate, began to play upon his lute. The enemy, surprised at this strange spectacle, and suspecting an ambuscade, were afraid to enter the gates that stood open so invitingly. Fearing an attack from some hidden foe, they withdrew in haste, and thus Chu-ko Liang was enabled, without further loss, to withdraw the survivors of his army.

Although the armies of the Kingdom of Shu afterward gained some successes in their battles with the Kingdom of Wei, they were never able to effect a conquest. This was largely due to the fact that they were obliged to carry on the war at a great distance from their base of operations, and met with much difficulty in transporting their supplies across the mountain passes of Szechwan.

After the death of Chu-ko Liang, Hou Chu deprived of competent counsellors, deteriorated in character. He gave himself up to a life of luxury, and no longer exerted himself to increase the strength of his Kingdom. Consequently, the King of Wei

**The Close of the
Period of the
Three Kingdoms.**

seized the opportunity of putting an end to the existence of its rival. By an expedition sent into Szechwan, Hou Chu was defeated and taken prisoner.

He was led in triumph to Loyang, the Capital of Wei, and confined as a prisoner of State. Out of contempt for his weakness of character and fondness for pleasure, his conqueror bestowed upon him the title "Duke of Pleasure."¹

With the fall of Hou Chu, the Han Dynasty came to an end.

CHAPTER IX.

**The Period of Disunion and the Division of the
Empire between the Tartars in the North
and the Chinese in the South
(A.D. 223-589).**

**The
Western Tsin¹
(A.D. 265-317).**

For the next three centuries anarchy prevailed in China, the country being split up into a large number of small Kingdoms. After a brief period, owing to the incapacity of the Rulers of Wei, an able general, Ssü-ma Chao² son of Ssü-ma I, became the virtual ruler of the Northern Kingdom. During his life time, he did not dare to take the title of Emperor, but after his death, his son Ssü-ma Yen,³ ascended the Dragon Throne, and established a new Dynasty known as the Western Tsin.

When Ssü-ma Yen ascended the throne (265 A.D.) he took the dynastic title of Wu Ti,⁴ and called his Dynasty the Tsin, from the name of the dukedom over which his father had ruled. He introduced some important reforms into the government, and checked the lavish expenditure which had characterized the Kingdom of Wei during its latter days. The principal event of his reign was an attempt to conquer the Kingdom of Wu. This was an exceedingly difficult undertaking because it involved leading an expedition across the Yangtse River. This great river has always been a natural dividing line between the North and South. And more than once, as we have already stated, has formed the boundary of separate kingdoms. Wu Ti had in his army several efficient Generals, and finally, partly by force and partly through conciliatory methods, succeeded, for a brief period, in subjugating the Southern Kingdom.

**The Rebellion
of the
Hsiung-nu.**

One result of the incessant border wars between the Chinese and the Tartars was a commingling of Tartar and Chinese blood. This came about by Chinese princesses being presented to the Tartar chieftains as consorts whenever truces were made with them.

Consequently, we come now to a period when with much show of justice the Tartar chiefs could put forth claims to the possession of Imperial blood in their veins, and thus to being the lawful heirs to the Dragon Throne. Liu Yuan,¹ a Tartar chieftain with a strain of Chinese blood, taking advantage of the fact that the second Emperor of the Western Tsin Dynasty, Huai Ti,² was incapable of governing the Empire, gathered a force of 50,000 men, and, styling himself the Prince of Han, set up for worship the ancestral tablets of the Han Emperors, signifying that he claimed to be the rightful Emperor of China. His brother Liu Chang,³ who succeeded him, led away into captivity the third and fourth of the Western Tsin Emperors. After this the Hsiung-nu for sixty years reigned supreme in the North of China. They established their Capital near the modern Peking and called their Rulers the "Sons of Heaven."

"Coming events cast their shadow before," and this temporary seizure of power by the less civilized and more warlike tribes of the North was but the prelude to the final complete domination of the Empire by the Tartars.

**The Eastern
Tsin Dynasty
(A.D. 317-420).**

When the last of the Western Tsin Emperors had been carried away captive by the Hsiung-nu, the Empire in the South was left without a head. One of the descendants of the imperial line of Ssü-ma I constituted himself Emperor, and established his capital at Nanking, taking the dynastic title of Yuan Ti,⁴ and calling his Dynasty the Eastern Tsin.⁵

**The Character
of the
Period during
the Eastern Tsin.**

During the time of the Eastern Tsin the greatest confusion prevailed, and the Empire again went through a process of disintegration. In the South there were numerous claimants to the throne, who were constantly at war with one another. In the North the Tartars were firmly established.

Finally, in the South, Liu Yu,¹ a General who had won distinction as a supporter of the Eastern Tsin Dynasty in its struggle with the other rival Princes, brought the strife to an end for a time by deposing the last of the Eastern Tsin Emperors and establishing a new Dynasty, known as the Sung,² with himself as the first Emperor.

This division of the Empire shows how loosely it was held together, and that it had never become really consolidated. In times of trouble the centrifugal force was always stronger than the centripetal, and the central government was unable to unite all the parts by bonds strong enough to resist disruption.

**The Sung
Dynasty
(A.D. 420-479).**

Liu Yu when he became Emperor was known by the two names Wu Ti and Kao Tsu.³ He was sixty-four years of age, and reigned but a short time. Although nominally the Emperor of China, yet in reality his sway was very limited. The North still remained in the hands of the Tartars, and was divided up into many small kingdoms. The most important of these were the Wei⁴ (ruled over by Eastern Tartars), the Hsia⁵ (ruled over by the Hsiung-nu), the Northern Yen⁶ (ruled over by Eastern Tartars), the Western Liang,⁷ and the Western Tsin (ruled over by a Thibetan Family).⁸

The important feature of the Period is the constant struggle between the Chinese in the South and the Tartars in the North, and consequently it is known as the *Epoch of the Division between the North and the South*.⁹ Just as in Roman History the Teutonic Tribes annexed the North of the Empire before they made their final conquest, so in Chinese History the Tartars established themselves first in the North and at a later period advanced to the South.

**The Kingdom
of Wei.**

The most powerful of the Northern Kingdoms was that of Wei, founded by a Tartar family named Toba.¹⁰ It extended over a part of modern Chihli

and Shansi, and gradually absorbed the whole of modern Honan, part of the Kingdom lying to the North and part to the South of the Yellow River. The Capital was situated at Loyang. After conquering most of the other Northern Kingdoms it became the chief rival to the House of Sung.

**The Progress of
Civilization
among
the Tartars.**

Although at first, as we have already noted, these Tartars were a rude and barbarous people, yet after they entered Chinese territory they accepted the civilization of the people whom they conquered. They became acquainted with Chinese literature, and were influenced by the teachings of the Buddhist and Taoist religions. In a very short space of time they adopted Chinese customs and manners. A remarkable feature of the successive conquests of China by the Tartars is that they assimilated with much readiness the superior civilization of China and added very little to it themselves. We may find an historical parallel in the adoption of the Roman civilization by the Teutonic peoples who overthrew the Western Roman Empire.

**The Struggle
between the
Houses of Sung
and Wei.**

The fourth Emperor of the Sung Dynasty, Wên Tî,¹ (A D. 424-454), made a determined effort to rescue Honan from the hands of Toba Tao,² the third Emperor of the Northern Wei Dynasty, for he was anxious to limit the boundaries of the Kingdom of Wei to the Northern banks of the Yellow River. The attempt proved a failure, for in winter, when the Yellow River was frozen, the army of Wei effected a crossing and drove out the troops of Sung from the position they had seized in Southern Honan.

Some time later the Emperor of Wei, Toba Tao, led an immense expedition into the territory of Wên Tî. The progress of his army was marked by savage atrocities. Six provinces were overrun, and the hostile horde penetrated to the banks of the Yangtse. Finally, unable to obtain food for his vast host in the enemy's country, Toba Tao was compelled to retreat before he had succeeded in taking Nanking.

**A Short-lived
Dynasty the Ch'i
(A.D. 479-502).**

A military commander named Hsiao Tao Cheng,² noted for his physical prowess, raised himself to prominence by the bravery he displayed in the wars with the Kingdom of Wei, and finally became strong enough to usurp the Imperial Throne. He assumed the title of Kao Ti, and established a new Dynasty known as the Ch'i (479-502)

This Dynasty lasted however, only a short time, and was overthrown by another usurper, named Hsiao Yen,³ who set up a Dynasty called the Liang.⁴

**The Liang
Dynasty
(A.D. 502-557).**

Hsiao Yen, upon ascending the throne, took the dynastic title of Wu Ti. He was favourably inclined to learning, and throughout the country established schools in which the writings of Confucius were carefully studied. Large sums of money were devoted to the purpose of building temples dedicated to the worship of Confucius and his disciples.

**The Siege
of Hsiang-yang¹
(A.D. 516).**

Wu Ti's principal ambition was to conquer and annex the Kingdom of Wei, and thus regain all the territory formerly belonging to the Empire and bring it under the rule of the Chinese. As a step toward the accomplishment of this purpose he dispatched a large army to lay siege to the town of Hsiang-yang situated on the Huai or Han River,⁶ in the modern Province of Hupeh which he regarded as the key to the conquest of the Kingdom of Wei. Finding it impossible to take the city by storm, the General in command of the invading army resorted to the following plan. He gave orders for an enormous dam to be constructed across the river, intending by the obstruction of the waters to inundate the city and the surrounding country, and in this way compel the inhabitants to surrender. The soldiers of the invading army labored on the building of the dam for two years. When it was completed it was three miles long, twelve hundred feet high, and had a breadth of 1,445 feet at the base, and 450 feet at the top. As soon as the work was finished and the sluices closed, the waters began to rise, and threatened to overwhelm

the city. Just at this juncture, when there seemed to be no hope for the besieged, an unexpected calamity occurred. The force of the volume of accumulated waters proving too great, a part of the dam was suddenly swept away, and the waters rushing through the opening with tremendous force carried widespread destruction in their course. Fifteen thousand of the soldiers of Liang were caught in the flood and drowned. Disheartened by this terrible disaster, the attempt to reduce the city was abandoned and the army withdrawn.

**The Downfall
of the
Liang Dynasty.**

Wu Ti in the latter part of his reign having been greatly influenced by the doctrines of Buddhism, withdrew from his palace and entered a Buddhist monastery (A D 528). Owing to his fondness for the life of a recluse, the affairs of State were sadly neglected, and as a consequence rebellions became rife throughout the country, resulting finally in the downfall of his Dynasty.

**The Ch'ên
Dynasty
(A.D. 557-589).**

The Ch'ên Dynasty was established by Ch'ên Pa-hsien,² one of the ministers of the former Dynasty, who compelled Ching Ti,³ the last sovereign of the Liang Dynasty, to abdicate in his favor. He took the Dynastic title of Wu Ti, and reigned for a period of three years. It was at this time that a new power arose in the North, the Kingdom of the northern Chou.⁴ The Kingdom of Wei had gradually lost its commanding position among the Northern Tartar States, and the Northern Chou, by conquering and adding to its dominions the territory of the Northern Ts'is (the modern Shansi), came to be the most formidable rival of the Southern Chinese Empire.

As none of the rulers of the Ch'ên Dynasty were men of exceptional ability, the Dynasty never obtained a firm footing.

At last Yang Chien,⁵ a General of distinguished descent, who had been in the employ of the Northern Chou, determined to seize the throne for himself. He first usurped the throne of Chou and then captured the city of Nanking, and led captive to Shensi, Hou Chu,⁷ the last Emperor of the Ch'ên Dynasty (A.D. 589).

After distributing honors among his successful generals, he assumed the Imperial insignia, and established over the whole country a new Dynasty, known as the Sui.¹

With the establishment of this Dynasty the first struggle with the Tartars may be said to have come to an end. *The whole country was once more for a brief period united under the rule of the Chinese*

The task of holding back the Northern tribes was, however, too difficult for the Chinese to accomplish successfully, and it was not long before the old strife was renewed between the Northern Tartars and the Chinese.

DIVISION III.

**The Second Struggle with the Tartars
(A.D. 589-1644).**CHAPTER X.

A Period of Reconsolidation (A.D. 589-907).**The Sui Dynasty (A.D. 589-619) and the T'ang Dynasty (A.D. 620-907).**

Kao Tsu or Wên Ti
(A.D. 589-605). Yang Chien, after deposing Hou Chu, ascended the throne, taking the title of Kao Tsu or Wên Ti, and gave his Dynasty the title of Sui, from the name of the dukedom which had been bestowed upon his father for services rendered to the Northern Kingdom of Chou.

Although he had been in the employ of the Northern Tartar Kingdom, he was a Chinese by birth, and thus once more the Empire came under the rule of the Chinese. He proved an able Emperor, and his fame spread so far that envoys came from the Turcoman tribes¹ on the North to the Capital at Changan in Shensi to pay their respects. They were much impressed with the magnificence of his court and his great military power, and carried back with them such glowing reports of what they had seen that, for a considerable time, the Turcomans refrained from disturbing the peace of the Empire.

**Pilgrimage to
Tai Shan¹
(A.D. 595).**

In the year 595, the country around the Capital was visited by a severe famine, and a large part of the population was compelled to migrate to the territory now included in the modern Province of Honan. The Emperor, regarding the calamity as a manifestation of the wrath of Heaven due to his own misdeeds, made a pilgrimage to the T'ai Shan (Exalted Mountain) in Shantung, and, ascending to its summit, confessed his sins and prayed for forgiveness.

While the Emperor was absent from his Capital, one of his Generals caused to be built for him a magnificent palace known as the Hall of "Long-Lived Benevolence."² The Emperor upon his return, instead of showing pleasure, expressed in the strongest terms his disapproval of this needless expenditure, and of the cruelty resorted to in forcing the inhabitants of the famine district to labor upon these huge buildings. This story is often quoted as an evidence of the Emperor's humane disposition and of his having the good of his people at heart.

**The Rebellion
of
Kuang³ (A.D. 605).**

Owing to the misdemeanor of the Crown Prince, Wên Ti nominated his second son Kuang as heir apparent, but in the latter part of his life he re-appointed his first son Yung⁴ as his successor. This led Kuang to raise a conspiracy against his father and elder brother, and after murdering both he seized the throne for himself. Thus Yang Chien, who had won the Empire by violence, lost it by a similar act on the part of one of his own sons.

**Yang Ti⁵
(A.D. 605-617).**

The usurper Kuang is known in history as Yang Ti. He was a man of violent temper, and gave himself up to extravagance and debauchery, squandering large sums of money on his palace and pleasure-grounds at Chi'angtu,⁶ the modern Yangchow.⁷ The trees in his park are said to have been decorated in winter with flowers and leaves of silk, and the birds of the district were almost exterminated to provide sufficient down for his pillows and cushions.

In order that he might make a royal progress throughout his dominions with greater convenience, he gave orders for the construction of an extended system of canals, and on these, when they were completed, he made a journey from Loyang to Nanking.

**The Expedition
against
Corea A.D. 615.**

When the Ruler of the chief State in Corea refused to pay the customary tribute to the Chinese Empire, Yang Ti determined to send an expedition, consisting of 305,000 men, to invade Liaotung,¹ then included in the Kingdom of Corea. The army crossed the River Liao and invested the Capital of Liaotung. A great battle was fought near the Yalu River,² but, contrary to the Emperor's expectations, the Chinese army was disastrously defeated. The unsuccessful generals, according to the custom in China in such cases, paid the penalty of their inefficiency by forfeiting their lives, and then the Emperor began preparations on a much larger scale for another invasion of Corea. The expedition was unpopular with the people, and many protests were sent to the Capital. One of his advisers tried to dissuade him from the undertaking by saying: "You would never dream of using a ballista of a thousand pounds weight to shoot a rat, and why should you go to this great expense to subdue a country that is beneath your notice." Yang Ti, however, refused to listen to advice, and finally, in the year 615, the expedition reached Corea. When the army had occupied Shengking,³ envoys came from the King of Corea promising submission, and agreeing that Corea should henceforth be tributary to the Chinese Empire.

**The Invasion
of the
Turcomans, and
the Death
of the Emperor.**

The news of the success of the expedition to Corea was received by the Emperor with unbounded delight, and he immediately set out on a luxurious tour throughout the Province of Shensi. His rejoicing, however, was of short duration, for tidings soon reached him of an invasion of the Turcomans from the North, and of their swooping down on the Province of Shansi under the command of a chieftain named Shih-pi⁴ to whom he had given one of his daughters in marriage.

The Emperor in his attempt to oppose this incursion was surrounded and besieged in the town of Yenmên¹ in Shansi for nearly a month, and very nearly fell into the hands of his enemies. The latter, unaccustomed to sieges, and finding it impossible to entice the Emperor out of his stronghold, or to take the city by storm, finally abandoned the attempt and retired to their own territory.

The reign of Yang Ti came to an end through a rebellion headed by one of his Generals named Li Yuan,² who formed an alliance with the Turcomans and soon became undisputed master of a large part of the Empire.

Yang Ti was obliged to flee to Nanking where he was shortly afterwards assassinated. First one and then another of his grandsons succeeded him. Both proving incompetent, Li-yuan ascended the Imperial throne and established the Dynasty known as the T'ang³ (A.D. 618-909).

**The
First Emperor
of the
T'ang Dynasty
Kao Tsu⁴
(A.D. 618-627).**

Li Yuan is known by his Imperial title of Kao Tsu. One of his first acts was to encourage learning, and an edict which had been issued by Yang Ti, abolishing the principal schools throughout the Empire and retaining only the Imperial College at the Capital, was rescinded. The task of pacifying the Empire was a difficult one, but Kao Tsu finally succeeded in subduing the warring factions, and in arranging terms of peace with his former allies, the Turcomans. He established his Capital at Changan in Shensi.

**Suppression
of the
Monasteries.**

Perceiving that the Buddhist Bonzes and Nuns, by their idle and vicious lives, were a source of danger to the country, and having himself but little respect for the teachings of the religion they professed, he issued edicts for the suppression of many of the monasteries throughout the Empire, and ordered their inmates to abandon their useless lives and engage in secular occupations.

The latter part of the Emperor's life was disturbed by dissension in the Imperial family. He resigned the throne in favor

of his second son Li Shih-min,¹ and this action roused the jealousy of his other two sons, and led them to engage in a conspiracy to put the favored brother to death. Li Shih-min to save his own life anticipated the plot, by putting to death both of his brothers.

**The Emperor
T'ai Tsung²
(A.D. 627-650).**

Although Li Shih-min committed fratricide to secure the throne, he proved a wise and farsighted Emperor, and stands out in history a prominent figure against a background of weak and inefficient rulers.

He took the Dynastic title T'ai Tsung. His first great achievement was a complete victory over the Turcomans, who, led by two chieftains named Chieh Li³ and T'u Li,⁴ had invaded Chinese territory. Fearing further incursions of this foe, he took steps to strengthen his army and made important changes in the method of warfare. The soldiers were supplied with longer pikes and stronger bows, and the equipment and training of the cavalry, a branch of military science hitherto neglected by his predecessors, received careful attention.

T'ai Tsung was not a warrior by inclination so much as from force of circumstances, and as soon as peace was secured he applied himself to the encouragement of literature and learning. Close by his palace, in his Capital, he built an enormous library in which 200,000 volumes were collected. He was a most enthusiastic disciple of the teachings of Confucius, and was fond of holding discussions on the famous aphorisms of the great Sage with his Ministers and with the leading scholars of the Empire. To him is attributed the saying, "Confucius is for the Chinese what the water is for the fish." In the year 629, the whole Empire was divided into ten provinces named Kuannai,⁵ Hotung,⁶ Honan, Hopeh,⁷ Shannan,⁸ Lungyu,⁹ Huanan,¹⁰ Kiangnan,¹¹ Chiehnan,¹² and Lingnan.¹³

**The prestige
of the
Chinese Empire.**

The year 680 was a glorious one in the reign of T'ai Tsung, for in that year embassies from a great number of tributary Kingdoms and States came to the Capital to pay their respects and to

offer their tribute; and the great variety of languages spoken by the envoys, and the great diversity of their costumes testified to the power and prestige of the Chinese Empire. It may be said without exaggeration that Tai Tsung was one of the most powerful rulers who ever lived. His Empire extended on the South to Annam and on the West to the Caspian Sea. About this time there was also great rejoicing in the Empire on account of a victory gained by the Chinese army over the Turcomans which resulted in wresting from them a large part of their territory. The possessions of the Turcomans were divided up into ten departments, over which Chinese magistrates were appointed.

**The invasion
of Corea.**

In 645 T'ai Tsung led an army to invade Corea, at this time composed of three Kingdoms, Kao-li,¹ Pai-chi,² and Sin-lo.³ The Emperor was led to this step because a number of Chinese taken prisoners in the expedition of Yang Ti had been forcibly detained in Corea and prevented from returning to their own country. The invasion of Corea proved unsuccessful, for the Emperor was foiled in his attempt to take the city of Anshih,⁴ and was obliged to retire before completing the subjugation of the country. Death overtook him while busy with preparations for another expedition, and the throne came to his ninth son, known in history as the Emperor Kao Tsung.⁵

**Kao Tsung
(A.D. 650-684).**

Kao Tsung after reigning a few years became enamoured of the charms of one of the concubines in the harem of his father. She had been removed from the close confinement to which the wives of deceased Emperors are relegated, and the Emperor took her for one of his own consorts. This woman, named Wu Hou⁶ soon gained a complete mastery over the Emperor and became the virtual ruler of the Empire. Her ambition had no limits, and she schemed to raise herself to the position of Empress. This she accomplished by strangling a child she had borne to the Emperor, and causing the suspicion of its murder to be cast upon the Empress. The Emperor, believing the charges, deposed the Empress, and

elevated Wu Hou in her place. After the success of her plot, one of the first acts of this utterly unprincipled woman, was to put to death with remorseless cruelty all whom she suspected of being her enemies. She delighted in inventing barbarous tortures for those whom she hated; and the story is told of her giving orders that two of her enemies, after having their hands and feet cut off, should be thrown into tubs of strong spirits and left there until death put an end to their agonies.

When she had firmly established her position as Empress, she persuaded the Emperor to promulgate a decree announcing that henceforth he and she should be known as "The two Holy Ones" ¹

**Expedition to
Corea (A.D. 667).**

In 667, an expedition was sent to Corea, and the Capital Pingyang² was closely invested, until the defenders were forced to capitulate and open their gates to the Chinese army. The King of Corea was compelled to submit to the rule of the T'angs, and his whole Kingdom was divided into five colonies, over which Chinese and Native officials were appointed as joint rulers.

**Battle with the
Turfans.³**

A few years later, the Turfans, at that time the inhabitants of Thibet, raised an immense force and became a menace to China. A battle was fought with them at Ch'ing Hai,⁴ the Azure Sea, otherwise known as Lake Kokonor, with the result that the Chinese were defeated. After eight different engagements, however, the Chinese finally succeeded in expelling the Turfans from the territory of the Empire, and a check was placed to their further encroachments.

When Kao Tsung died he left the throne to his son Chung Tsung,⁵ but the Empress Dowager Wu Hou completely overshadowed him, and for the next twenty-one years held the reins of government, the Emperor being confined in Fangchow ⁶

**The Rule of the
Empress Wu Hou
(A.D. 684-705).**

The Empress Wu Hou was not only the power behind the throne, but openly assumed its outward insignia, clothing herself in robes, such as should be worn only by the Emperor, and offering the Imperial sacrifices. She meditated overthrowing the Dynasty,

and establishing a new one, and accordingly destroyed the Ancestral Tablets of Kao Tsung, and caused those of her own family to be erected in their place. The many plots on foot to put an end to her tyranny were discovered by her ubiquitous spies. By banishing to the distant outskirts of the Empire the principal Princes of the House of T'ang, she succeeded in effectually disposing of all who were desirous of her overthrow.

**The Invasion of
the Khitans.¹**

Her reign was disturbed by an invasion of the Khitans, a Tartar tribe living in the North of Shensi, who had begun to ravage and plunder the Northern part of the Empire. It is interesting to note that the word Cathay, which in the Middle Ages was used in Europe as the name of China, is derived from the name of this tribe. The old name is still seen in the Russian word for China, which is K'itai.

**Retirement of
the Empress
Wu Hou.**

Owing to old age and enfeebled health, the Empress Wu Hou was finally forced to resign, but even after she had ceased to rule, the wholesome dread with which she was regarded led to her being treated with marked respect. She received the title of "The Great and Sacred Empress,"² and dwelt in a palace especially erected for her. In later ages Chinese historians, although admiring her great ability, came to regard her as one of the most wicked of women, and as one whose memory should be held up to universal execration.

**The Decline of
the T'ang
Dynasty.**

After the time of the Empress Wu Hou, the T'ang Dynasty gradually sank to its fall. This was owing to many causes, among which may be mentioned the weakness of the ruling Emperors, the growing power of the Eunuchs of the Palace, the frequent civil rebellions, and the incursions of the Khitans.

We shall only attempt to give a summary of the more important events of the closing period of the Dynasty.

(1.) During the reign of an Emperor called Hsuan Tsung, in A.D. 734, the Empire was divided into fifteen provinces or circuits. These were the Ching Ch'i,⁴ Tu Ch'i,⁵ Kuannei, Honan, Hotung, Hopeh, Lungyu, Shannan Tung,⁶ Shannan Hsi,⁷ Chien-

nan, Hueinan, Kiangnan Tung,¹ Kiangnan Hsi,² Chienchung,³ and Lingnan. The Capital was at Changan.

(2.) In 765 a serious rebellion, headed by a general of Hsiung-nu descent, broke out, and during its progress the Capital, Changan, and Loyang were captured from the Imperial forces. The Emperor called in the assistance of one of the wild tribes, the Ougars to help suppress it, and held out to them the inducement of a liberal reward. The consequence of the employment of these Northern Barbarians was to increase their cupidity, and to prepare the day when they would no longer be content to act as mercenaries, but, realizing their own strength, would attempt to seize the Empire for themselves.

By the help of the Ougars, the cities taken by the rebels were recaptured, but only after a severe struggle, it being estimated that during the rebellion the population of China sank from fifty to less than twenty millions.

(3.) In the year 785, the famous Hanlin Academy⁴ was established, composed of the highest scholars in the land. The examinations for admission to this body were held once in three years, and at each examination only the six candidates who excelled in learning were admitted. During this Dynasty the Civil Service Examination system took on the form which lasted until the overthrow of the Manchu Dynasty, and Chinese officials were recruited from the literary class.

At this time also was instituted the Court Gazette,⁵ which may be considered the oldest newspaper in the world. It was issued for the purpose of giving publicity to the edicts promulgated by the Emperor.

(4.) During the reign of the Emperor Hsi Tsung⁶ (A.D. 874-889) another formidable rebellion broke out, headed by a general named Huang Ch'ao,⁷ and in order to suppress it the Emperor entered into an alliance with the son of a Turcoman chieftain named Li K'o-yuan.⁸ The troops of this chieftain were known as "the Black Crows."⁹ They carried on their warfare in so barbarous and cruel a manner that their opponents were struck

with fear and consternation and submitted with little opposition. By their help the rebellion of Huang Ch'ao was quickly suppressed.

(5) The T'ang Dynasty came to an end in the usurpation of the throne by a common adventurer named Chu Wên,¹ a man of no special talents or ability, who was able to force his way to the front solely on account of the utter weakness of the reigning Emperor, and the prevalent disorder resulting from the division of the Court into numerous hostile factions.

**The Fame of the
T'ang Dynasty.**

The T'ang Dynasty had lasted altogether for 289 years, and owing to the marked ability of its first Emperors, the prestige and fame of China had increased many fold. The era is also specially memorable as being the Augustan age of Chinese literature.

Among other great writers who lived at this time were the celebrated poets Tu Fu² and Li T'ai-po,³ whose poems are still studied by all Chinese scholars, and regarded as models for all writers of poetry.

It is also noteworthy as the time when Mahomedanism and Christianity were first introduced into China Proper. The Nestorian Missionaries from Persia and Nepaul⁴ carried on an active propaganda in the Northern part of the Empire, having entered China as early as the year 506. They seem to have met for a time with considerable success, and a striking evidence of this is found in a tablet, erected by Imperial sanction, still standing near the city of Sianfu, upon which is recorded an outline of the doctrines of their Church.

As an evidence that the Chinese regard the T'ang Dynasty as one of the most glorious periods of their history, one of the names by which the Chinese still call themselves is "The Men of T'ang."⁵

Every nation now and then has what we call a creative age, and such was the character of the T'ang Period. There were inventions and discoveries such as gunpowder and the compass. It was a period of progress, and advance in civilization.

¹ 溫朱 ² 甫杜 ³ 白太李 ⁴ 爾波泥 ⁵ 人唐

CHAPTER XI.

The Epoch of the Five Dynasties¹ (A.D. 907-960.)
The Period of Military Despotism.

**The Later
Liang Dynasty²
(A.D. 907-923).**

After the fall of the T'ang Dynasty, we come to a period generally known as the Epoch of the Five Dynasties, deriving its name from the fact that, in the small space of fifty years, five ephemeral Dynasties followed one another in quick succession. We may compare this period with that in Roman history, during the decline of the Empire, when the Imperial power fell into the hands of the successful generals. Owing to the fact that the Chinese had been so long engaged in war for the purpose of suppressing civil revolutions, or opposing the raids of the Tartar tribes, the military leaders had become the most influential men in the Empire, and thus were tempted to make use of their power to obtain the Imperial throne for themselves. Another significant feature of the period is that just as the destruction of the power of the Hsiung-nus by the House of Han resulted in paving the way for the attacks of other Tartar tribes, so the overthrow of the Turcomans by the House of T'ang prepared the way for the inroads of the Khitans. Of the five Dynasties, so rapidly succeeding one another, three were of Turcoman extraction.

The first of the Five is called the Later Liang Dynasty. This was established by Chu-wên, who upon ascending the throne took the Imperial title of T'ai Tsu.³ Although claiming to be Emperor over the whole of China, his sway was far from being universally

acknowledged. His principal adversary was a general named Li Ts'un-hsu¹ the son of Li K'o-yung. Eventually, Li Ts'un-hsu overthrew the House of Liang and established the second of the Five Dynasties.

**The
Later T'ang²
(A.D. 923-936).** Li Ts'un-hsu adopted the dynastic title of Chuang Tsung³ and called his Dynasty the Later T'ang. He made his Capital in Weichow⁴ in the modern Province of Chihli. He was a great warrior, and gained important victories over the Khitans, who were rapidly becoming the most formidable enemy of the Empire. His brother who succeeded him was an equally successful general, but the reign of the latter is principally noted for the fact that during it the art of block printing was invented by Feng Tao,⁵ and the Nine Classics, by Imperial order, were printed from wooden blocks (A.D. 932). Later on, "living types" or movable types, were used in China and Corea at a date far in advance of their invention in Europe.

**The
Later Tsin⁶
(A.D. 936-947).** Shih King-t'ang,⁷ one of the generals of the Later T'ang, formed an alliance with the Khitan chief, Tê Kuang,⁸ for the purpose of destroying the ruling House and elevating himself to the throne. He was successful in his attempt, and established the Dynasty known as the Later Tsin. Owing to the fact of help being received from the Khitans, the Emperors of this short-lived Dynasty were completely subservient to those who enabled them to obtain the throne, and were forced to address the Khitan Chief as "Father."

**The
Later Han⁹
(A.D. 947-951).** The second Emperor of the Later Tsin, Ch'i Wang,¹⁰ made a desperate attempt to throw off the yoke of bondage imposed by the Khitans, and in consequence was carried into captivity. Liu Chih-yüan,¹¹ taking advantage of the throne being vacant, seized the opportunity of making himself Emperor, and established the Later Han Dynasty. His Dynasty was in turn destined to last only a few years, and then the Empire fell into the hands of a

general named Kuo Wei,¹ who, by his success in an expedition against the Khitans, had become very popular among the people

**The Later
Chou Dynasty²
(A.D. 951-960).**

The Dynasty established by Kuo Wei is known as the Later Chou. During its brief duration confusion prevailed in the Empire. As no one seemed to have a strong claim to be Emperor, the powerful generals of the army struggled for the mastery, and looked upon the throne as the prize of victory. Finally Chao K'uang-yin³ overcoming all his rivals, raised himself to the throne, and established the Sung Dynasty. Thus the period of disunion was temporarily brought to a close, and a large part of the Empire once more came under the rule of one Emperor.

¹ 威 郭 ² 周 後 ³ 胤 匡 趙

CHAPTER XII.

**The Division of the Empire between the Kins
(Tartars) in the North and the Sung's (Chinese)
in the South (A.D. 960-1280).**

**The Sung
Dynasty.**

The founder of the new Dynasty, Chao K'uang-yin, adopted the Dynastic title of T'ai Tsu¹ (A.D. 960-976). He was a native of the Northern part of the Empire, but was of Chinese descent. His Capital was established at Kaifengfu in the North-East of Honan. The great aim of T'ai Tsu was the consolidation of the Empire. This was difficult to accomplish, as he had many rivals, chief among whom were the Prince of Han in the North, and the Prince of T'ang in the South. In addition to his struggle to overcome rebellious Chinese Princes, he was continually at war with the Khitans, who at this time had firmly established themselves in the Liaotung Peninsula, and his troubles were further increased by the Khitans forming an aggressive alliance with the Prince of Han against the Empire.

One of the important reforms of his reign was the establishment of a Board of Punishments² at the Capital. Up to this time, the power of life and death had been in the hands of the Provincial officials, but after the appointment of this Board, all capital offences were first to be reported to the Central Government and the punishment to be meted out was to be suggested by this Board and finally determined by the Emperor. This took away from the Provincial officials a power they had only too often abused in their own interests.

**The Emperor
T'ai Tsung¹
(A.D. 976-998).**

T'ai Tsung was the brother of the preceding Emperor. During his reign the Empire once more became fairly well united. In the year 986, a great expedition was undertaken against the Khitans who, as we have said, occupied at this time the Liaotung Peninsula, and were constantly encroaching on the domains of the King of Corea. T'ai Tsung enlisted the help of the King of Corea against them, and dispatched four separate armies into Liaotung to effect their subjugation. Notwithstanding his great preparations and the enormous effort put forth, the invasion was unsuccessful, and his armies were driven out of the country. Shortly after this, a rebellion broke out in Szechwan caused by the misery of the people and their extreme poverty, which were aggravated by the unscrupulous rapacity of the local magistrates. During the reign of this Emperor, the Empire was divided into fifteen Provinces called the Chingtung Tung,² the Chingtung Hsi³ (both in Honan), Hopeh, Hotung, Shensi, Kuaman, Hunan, Hupeh, Fukien, Kiangnan, Szechwan, Kwangtung, Kwangsi, and the two Chekiangs.⁴

T'ai Tsung, in the year 979, bestowed posthumous honors on the descendants of Confucius for the past forty-four generations, and exempted all the future descendants of the Sage from taxation, a privilege which they still enjoy.

**Rise of the
Kingdom of
Hsia.⁵**

During the reign of the Emperor Jên Tsung⁶ (A.D. 1023-1064), a new foe appeared. This was the Kingdom of Hsia occupying the modern Province of Kansu with some adjacent territory in Kokonor and the Desert of Gobi.

Chao-yuan Pao,⁷ the Ruler of the Kingdom, was an ambitious warrior, and, claiming to be a descendant of the Imperial line, arrogated to himself the title of Emperor. He gathered a force of 50,000 fighting men, and began to encroach on the territory of the Chinese Emperor. Thus the House of Sung was threatened by two formidable foes, the Khitans on the North-East, and the Kingdom of Hsia on the North-West. Unable to put forth

sufficient force to cope with the forces of the Kingdom of Hsia, the Emperor was obliged to make terms, and to agree to pay an annual subsidy in gold and silver, and a large number of rolls of silk.

Jên Tsung possessed little military skill, but was an enlightened patron of literature and education. Schools were opened in every district throughout the Empire, and every advantage was given to those desirous of learning.

The period was adorned by many eminent scholars, among whom was Ssü-ma Kuang,¹ the writer of a celebrated history of China consisting of 354 volumes, telling the story of the Empire from the Chou Dynasty to the close of the Epoch of the Five Dynasties.

During the reign of Shên Tsung² (A.D. 1068-1086), a famous social reformer named Wang An-shih obtained great influence. He proposed several radical reforms in the methods of taxation and the tenure of land and as he succeeded in gaining the ear of the Emperor the latter attempted to put the new ideas into practice.

The principal measures proposed by him were the following:—

(a.) *The Nationalization of the Commerce³ of the Empire.*—The taxes were to be paid in the produce of the land and in manufactured commodities, and the surplus products and commodities were to be purchased by the Government, which would afterward transport them to the different parts of the Empire where they were in demand, and sell them at a reasonable rate of profit. This reform was intended to do away with the oppression of the rich, who bought from the poor at as low rates as possible and gaining control of the market, sold at exorbitant prices.

(b.) *State Advances for the Cultivation of the Soil.*⁴—It was proposed that the Government should advance capital to the poor farmers, to be repaid after the harvests, in the sixth and tenth months, and that the rate of interest for such loans should be two per cent. per month.

(c.) *The Militia Enrollment Act.*⁵—It was proposed to divide the people of the whole Empire into divisions consisting of ten

families, with a head man appointed over each ten families. Every fifty families was to be under a head man of higher rank, and every five hundred families under one of still higher rank. Every family with more than one son was bound to give one for the service of the State. In times of peace these men could pursue their ordinary vocations, but in time of war, when danger threatened the country, they would be called to arms by their head men, and must be ready to repair at once to the seat of hostilities.

(d.) *The Imposition of an Income Tax for the Construction of Public Works.*¹—Up to this time Public Works had been constructed by compulsory labor, but it was now suggested that a census of the people should be taken, and that a tax should be levied upon each family according to its income. Great difficulty was experienced in ascertaining the incomes of the people, and this proposal met with violent opposition.

This paternal or socialistic form of government was given a trial by the Emperor, but as has so often proved the case in similar attempts, it did not meet with the success its proposers anticipated, and in a short time all these laws were abrogated.

It is curious to note, as an evidence of the conservatism of the Chinese people, that the name of Wang An-shih has until recently been treated with contempt by the historians of China, and that his economic theories have been looked upon as dangerous and destructive innovations.

**The Art of the
Sung Dynasty.**

According to Chinese authorities pictorial art attained its highest development during the time of the early Sung Emperors. The artists excelled especially in the painting of landscapes.

**Rise of the Kins
(A.D. 1111).**

The year A.D. 1111 was a very important one in the history of China, for it is marked by the rise of the power that indirectly was to bring about the complete conquest of the Empire by the Mongols. To the North of the Khitans lived a tribe known as the Kins or the Nü-Chên² Tartars. Originally they had been submissive to the great Khitan chief Apaoki,³ but as the Khitans declined in

strength, the Kins asserted their independence, and in 1125, they completely overpowered their former rulers. Their chief Akuta¹ took the title "Grand Khan," or Emperor and called his Dynasty the Kin, meaning "golden," and hence they are often referred to as the "golden horde."

They fought on horseback, and divided their forces into companies of fifty men. In each company, twenty men, clad in strong cuirasses, and armed with short swords and pikes, took up their position in the front rank. The remaining thirty, who composed the rear rank, wore less weighty armor, and had for their weapons bows, arrows, and javelins. In battle each company advanced with their horses at a gentle trot until within a few hundred yards of the enemy. Then increasing their speed they advanced within striking distance, discharged their bows and cast their javelins, and retired with the utmost celerity. They repeated these tactics several times until they succeeded in throwing the ranks of the enemy into confusion, and then, falling upon them with sword and pike, they were generally able to put them to rout.

**The Kins attack
the Chinese
Empire
(A.D. 1125).**

In A.D. 1125, the Kins, having vanquished the Khitans, made an advance on the Chinese Empire. As they approached the Capital, Kaifengfu, the Emperor of the Sungs, Hui Tsung,² fled to Nanking, leaving his son to bear the brunt of the coming conflict. The latter, unable to hold the Capital, was forced to capitulate, and to agree to ignominious terms of peace. The Chinese promised to pay their conquerors five million ounces of gold, fifty million ounces of silver, ten thousand oxen, an equal number of horses, and one million pieces of silk. The Kin ruler was to be allowed to assume the title of Khan or Emperor, portions of modern Shansi and Chihli were to be ceded to him, and the brother of the Chinese Emperor, Prince K'ang,³ was to be delivered up as a hostage. As soon as the forces of the Kins had withdrawn from the Capital, the Chinese repented of the bargain they had been compelled to make, and in order to avoid paying the large indemnity determined to renew the contest. As soon as the

Kins heard that hostile preparations were on foot, they returned in large force, crossed the Yellow River, and again invested Kaifengfu. The Emperor Hui Tsung, seeing that resistance was useless, bowed to the inevitable, and surrendered himself into the hands of the Kin general, Kuan La-pu.¹ The latter now increased his former demands, and called upon the Chinese to pay ten million ingots of gold, twenty million ingots of silver, each containing ten ounces, and ten million pieces of silk. Hotung and Hopeh as well as modern Shansi and Chihli were to be ceded. The Emperor, the Empress, and the Imperial household were carried away into captivity, and the Kins appointed a new Emperor to rule as their vassal over the Chinese Empire

The Character of the Succeeding Period. We now come to a period when the Chinese Empire proper is confined to the Provinces South of the Yangtse River, with the Capital at Nanking. All the Northern Provinces were in the possession of the Tartars, the Kins

Between the Northern and Southern Empires a continuous struggle was carried on, the Chinese striving to regain what had been lost and to drive out the Kins, and the Kins trying to effect the complete conquest of the whole Empire. Owing to the great tenacity of the Chinese, the Kins were thwarted in their attempts, and the completion of the conquest of China remained for another Tartar tribe, the Mongols

The Emperor Kao Tsung² (A.D. 1127-1163). The brother of the captive Emperor, who had escaped falling into the hands of the Kins, established his Capital at Nanking, and ascending the vacant throne with the Imperial title of Kao

Tsung, continued the Dynasty, thereafter known as the Southern Sung. The whole of his reign was occupied with the struggle with the Kins. The great contention between the Northern and Southern Empires was for the possession of the modern Province of Honan. Kao Tsung had in his employ several generals who fought with skill and bravery, and the fortune of war declared itself now on one side, and now on the other. The Kins unaccustomed to fighting on water, were unable to effect a

successful crossing of the Yangtse, and the Great River remained the barrier between the North and the South. If Kao Tsung himself had shown greater energy he might have delivered his country from the grasp of the Kins, but he was timid in following up the successes of his generals, and allowed many opportunities to slip from his grasp. One of his generals named Tsung Tsé¹ held Kaifengfu for a considerable period, and as many as twenty times sent urgent messages to the Emperor, imploring him to abandon Nanking and return to the old Capital, but to all these entreaties the Emperor turned a deaf ear. When Tsung Tsé was dying, his last words are said to have been, "Cross the River, Cross the River," for he firmly believed that if the Emperor would only heed his advice, cross the Yangtse and advance to the North, a complete victory might be secured, and the Kins expelled from China.

Another famous general of this period was Yo Fei. He won many victories over the Kins, but was finally falsely accused by the traitor Ch'in Kuei, and thrown into prison and made way with. His tomb may be seen near the West Lake at Hangchow.

The constant raids of the Kins wrought great havoc in the Southern Empire. They devastated the Province of Shantung and, passing through it, took Yangchow and Hangchow, and at one time almost succeeded in taking the Emperor captive. He only managed to save himself by a precipitate flight southward to Wenchow.² Thither he was pursued, and was compelled to cross an arm of the sea in a boat and take refuge in one of the islands of the Taichow³ group. When the Kins attempted to follow him, their fleet met with a disastrous defeat, and they were forced to retire.

During the reign of Kao Tsung lived the remarkable scholar Chu Hsi.⁴ He took his second degree at the literary examination before reaching his twentieth year. He made an exhaustive study of the systems of Buddha, Lao-tsz, Confucius, and Mencius; and also of the works of the famous scholars, critics and commentators who for a century had been interpreting the sages of China. He re-edited,

Chu Hsi.⁴

the great historical work of Ssü-ma Kuang, and wrote commentaries on the classics. The latter have been regarded as the orthodox interpretation of the teachings of the sages until the present time

**The Rise
of the Mongols
(A.D. 1135).**

In the year A.D. 1135 the Mongols made their appearance on the Northern frontiers of the territory ruled over by the Kins, and began the conflict that was to result in the destruction of the Kins, and the subjugation of the Chinese Empire

The original home of the Mongols, whose name signifies "brave men," was in the strip of territory between the Onon¹ and Kerulon² Rivers, along the upper courses of the Amour, in the district South-East of Lake Baikal.³ They were probably related by blood to the Hsung-nu, and if this be so then Genghis,⁴ the great conqueror, and Attila, the "scourge of God," belonged to the same race.

The Mongol chieftain Kabul Khan was the first to assume the title "Grand Khan" or "Grand Emperor," and to begin the conflict with the Kins

**Genghis Khan
(A.D. 1162).**

It was probably in A.D. 1162 that Genghis, or as he was first called Temuchin,⁵ was born. At the age of thirteen he succeeded his father as head of the Mongols. At first many of the tribes refused to acknowledge him as their lord, but his mother, a woman of great determination, displayed the national ensign of the Mongols, the ox tail, and rallied around her son about one half of the tribes composing the Mongol Confederacy

As the boy grew up to manhood he exhibited qualities entitling him to the position he had inherited, and after distinguishing himself in numerous battles, he was in 1206 proclaimed Genghis Khan, that is, Most Mighty Khan, at a great meeting of the Mongol Confederacy on the banks of the Onon River. After subduing his enemies at home, Genghis resolved to extend his dominions towards the East. First he annexed the Kingdom of Hsia, and then breaking through the Great Wall he overran the modern Provinces of Chihli and Shansi, and penetrated with little

opposition to the Liaotung Peninsula, the Kins being unable to offer any serious resistance to his progress

**Conquest
of
Eastern Asia.**

In 1213, three expeditions were simultaneously dispatched for the purpose of conquering Eastern Asia, the first under Genghis himself, the second under his sons, and the third under his brothers.

All three were completely successful, and the one commanded by the great conqueror marched in triumph to the treeless hills of the Shantung Promontory, and halted not far from Weihaiwei.¹ After concluding peace with the Kins on condition of their paying him tribute he returned to Karakoram,² the old Capital of the Mongol Confederacy.

**Expedition
to
the West.**

Expeditions were sent out for the conquest of Western Asia. With marvellous rapidity, they overran Kashgar,³ Yarkand,⁴ and Khoten,⁵ pierced the mountain passes of the Himalayas, won a great victory on the banks of the Indus, conquered Georgia, and finally penetrated into Eastern Europe. At that time Russia consisted of many semi-independent States, whose rulers, though under the common suzerainty of the Grand Prince or Czar, were constantly at war with each other. On account of internal disunion, they were in no position to withstand a foreign invasion, and a force hastily collected to oppose the sudden and unexpected attack of the Mongols was easily routed, and the Russians forced to pay tribute. All the cities conquered by the armies of Genghis were so completely razed to the ground that the conqueror made the boast, "he could ride over their sites without meeting an obstacle large enough to make his horse stumble." Genghis Khan may rightly be considered one of the greatest conquerors the world has ever seen, and may justly be ranked with Alexander the Great, Hannibal, and Julius Cæsar. He manifested much skill in directing the movements of large armies over enormous distances, and displayed great military genius in the way he conducted his expeditions.

One of the important results of this great outpouring of the Mongols into Western Asia which should not be overlooked, was

the temporary check it gave to the spread of Mohammedanism in Eastern Asia. Hindered from extending in this direction, the followers of the Prophet were diverted to the West, and began their inroads on Southern Europe.

During the reign of Genghis, for the first time, Roman Catholic Missionaries obtained an entrance into Mongolia. From them we get an interesting account of the Chinese at the Mongol Capital, Karakoram. They describe them "as first rate artists, and state that their physicians have a thorough knowledge of the virtue of herbs, an admirable skill in diagnosis by examining the pulse, that the common money of Cathay consisted of pieces of paper made of cotton about a palm in length and breadth, and that the Chinese wrote with a brush such as artists use." These few lines give us an early account of some of the features of Chinese civilization as they appeared to outsiders

**The Conquest
of Ogotai¹
(A.D. 1229-1246).**

Genghis Khan was succeeded in 1229 by his son Ogotai who continued the career of conquest begun by his father. He completed the subjugation of the Kins, and annexed all the territory within the Eastern bend of the Yellow River. The last stronghold of the Kins taken was Kaifengfu, in 1234, and after the capture of this place the Kins sank into insignificance. In all, nine Emperors of the Kins had ruled over the Northern part of China, and had held the supreme power over one-half of the Empire for a space of one hundred and eighteen years. Ogotai, like his father, conducted an expedition to the West carrying pillage and slaughter into the very heart of Europe. Riazin, Moscow, Vladimur, Kieve, and many other cities of Russia were captured and utterly destroyed, and their inhabitants put to the sword. At Vladimur the whole Imperial family perished amid the flames of the burning cathedral. Hungary and Poland were also invaded, and, although a brave resistance was made, it was impossible for the people of these countries to withstand the inroads of the savage Mongol hordes. Pesth, Gran, and Cracow were razed to the ground, and other flourishing cities destroyed. In Silesia, the further progress of the Mongols was stayed by the arrival of

the news that the Great Khan, Ogotai, in a riotous debauch in his palace, had drunk himself to death. According to the established custom of the Mongols, it became necessary for the Mongol Generals to return, with as little delay as possible, to the Capital at Karakoram.

**The Beginning
of the Contest
between the
Mongols and the
Chinese.**

During the last stages of the conflict between the Mongols and the Kins, the Emperor of the Southern Sung Dynasty, Li Tsung¹ (1225-1265) entered into an alliance with the Mongol chief. He was led to take this step by his inveterate hatred of his old foes, the Kins, and he hailed with joy this opportunity of helping to bring about their overthrow, not perceiving, in his shortsightedness, that by so doing, he was hurrying on apace the fate of his own country.

The Chinese, after having rendered assistance to the Mongols, considered they were entitled to a share in the spoils, and forthwith proceeded to occupy their old Capital Kaifengfu, and the city of Loyang. This policy was not at all in accord with the designs of the Mongols, who at once ordered them to evacuate the Province of Honan. Upon the refusal of the Chinese war was declared, and it soon became apparent that the Mongols had only used the Chinese as the proverbial cat's paw for forwarding their own plans, and had never intended they should extend their own boundaries.

**The Conquests
of Kublai Khan.**

When Mangu² became Khan of the Mongols, in the year 1235, he, with his brother Kublai,³ at once began the conquest of China in earnest. First, they rapidly overran the Northern Provinces, and then advanced into Szechwan. Before the campaign ended, Mangu died, leaving to his brother Kublai the task of completing the subjugation of the whole country.

The plan adopted by the Mongols was to advance to the South, and conquer Yunnan, for they hoped in this way to be able to attack the Chinese from both the North and the South, and to surround them by hostile forces. Kublai, leaving the command

of the expedition to one of his generals, returned to the North, and at a council of the Mongols, held near the modern Peking, was elected Grand Khan. He fixed his Capital at Cambuluc,¹ near the site of the present Peking, the name Cambuluc signifying the City of the Khan

The conflict with the Sung was carried on with much energy. Their Emperor, Li Tsung, who had at first agreed to become the vassal of the Mongol Khan, afterwards assumed a defiant attitude, and put to death the envoys of the Mongol court, sent to announce the accession of Kublai as Grand Khan.

The important city of Hsiangyang in Hupeh on the Han or Huai River was invested by the Mongols. The siege lasted a long time, but finally by the use of engines of war brought from Persia, which could throw stones weighing more than 150 pounds, the walls of the sister city, Fan-ching² on the opposite side of the river, were breached, and then the fortifications of Hsiangyang were battered down, and the city entered by the Mongols, and given up to pillage. The Mongol army, under the command of a general named Bayan³ captured city after city in rapid succession. Hanyang, Hankow, Wuchang, and Soochow fell into the hands of the invaders, and in 1276, Hangchow, which had become the Capital of the Southern Sung, was taken, and the young Emperor. Kung Ti,⁴ and his mother, were sent as prisoners to Cambuluc

The brother of Kung Ti, Tuan Tsung,⁵ escaped capture by fleeing to Foochow in the modern Province of Fukien, and there set up the Capital of the tottering Dynasty. The cause of the Sung became more and more desperate, and the advancing Mongols carried everything before them. When they overran Fukien and Kiangsi, the Emperor fled by sea to Tung An,⁶ in Kwangtung. While journeying toward the South, the ship on which he travelled encountered a violent storm, and was wrecked. The Emperor himself barely escaped being drowned, and after reaching the island of Kangchow,⁷ died from the effects of the exposure

**The Downfall
of the
Sung Dynasty.**

The Chinese continued their desperate resistance, and placed upon the throne Ping Ti¹ (1278-1280), the last of the brothers of Kung Ti. In order to make their position more secure, they removed their Capital from the island of Kangchow to the island of Yaishan.² The Capital was on the sea-coast, and possessed a large and commodious harbor. This harbor was blockaded by the fleet of the Mongols, and, in a short time, the Chinese were reduced to great straits for lack of food and water. When every attempt to break through the blockade had failed, and it was impossible to hold out longer, the Emperor and all the Imperial family committed suicide by casting themselves into the sea. A few of the Chinese generals still carried on the struggle, but were soon forced to submit, and the Sung Dynasty perished, after running a course of three hundred and twenty years.

Thus the conquest of China by the Mongols was completed. It had taken more than half a century to accomplish and of all the Mongol triumphs, it may be considered the greatest. The Chinese had carried on the struggle with much persistency, and, although handicapped by the inefficiency of their generals, exhibited their characteristic tenacity, and prolonged the conflict long after other races would have yielded.

¹ 帝昺 ² 山厓

CHAPTER XIII.

The Yüan Dynasty¹ (A.D. 1280-1368). Complete Domination of the Mongols.

**The Reign of
Kublai Khan
(1280-1295).**

When Kublai Khan became the ruler of the whole of China, he chose as the title of the newly-established Dynasty the word Yuan, which means "original," and indicated that he instituted an entirely new *régime*. He took the Dynastic title of Shih Tsu,² and fixed his Capital at Cambuluc, or Peking.

It was natural that he should soon become more Emperor of China than Khan of the Mongols. He adopted a conciliatory attitude towards the Chinese, imitating their customs, supporting their institutions, and patronising their literature, and we are once more furnished with a striking example of the conquerors adopting the civilization of the conquered. A magnificent Court was maintained and an elaborate postal system established, and the country enjoyed such prosperity as it had not known for a long time. The Chinese settled down quietly, and for a time became somewhat reconciled to foreign rule.

In regard to religion the Emperor exhibited toleration, or rather eclecticism. He was kindly disposed toward Christianity, Buddhism, and Mohammedanism, and allowed complete liberty to the followers of these faiths. He was antagonistic to Taoism, and regarding its magical rites and superstitious practices as injurious to the people, gave orders that all the Taoist literature, with the exception of the *Tao Têh Ching*, should be burnt.

**Attempts at
Further
Conquests.**

Although Kublai was already ruler over a more extensive domain than had ever before acknowledged the sway of any one man, his thirst for conquest was still unsatiated, and he made attempts at further conquests which, however, met with only a modicum of success.

Corea was gained over by conciliatory methods, but the Japanese,* when he wished them to regard him as their overlord indignantly refused to be subjected to a foreign power. An expedition fitted out against them, consisting of Chinese and Korean soldiers, was disastrously defeated at Tsushima,¹ an island situated between Corea, and Kiusiu,² one of the islands of the Japanese archipelago. Later, an enormous fleet manned by Mongols, Chinese, and Koreans was sent to invade Kiusiu, but a large part of it was destroyed by storm, and the remnant was captured by the Japanese, who spared the lives of the Korean and Chinese prisoners but killed all the Mongols. This defeat proved that although the Mongols were generally successful on land they lacked skill in naval warfare, and were no match on the sea for the Japanese.

**Expedition
against
Cambodia.³**

Kublai also sent an expedition against Cambodia which had revolted and thrown off its allegiance to the Chinese Empire. The invading army, attempting to pass through the territory of the King of Annam,⁴ nominally a vassal State, was vigorously opposed by the Annamites, and the Mongols suffered much on the march from the extreme heat to which they were exposed. This was to them all the more trying as they were accustomed to the rigorous climate of their Northern home. Although they finally broke down the resistance of the Annamites, they made but little progress against the Cambodians, and, finally, owing to their army being much weakened by loss from sickness, were forced to retire. Annam remained nominally a tribute State of China, but it retained a semi-independence until, in our own day, it became a dependency of the French Republic.

* It is interesting to note that the Japanese were called 倭寇, that is

**Campaign
against
Burmah.**

A campaign against Burmah proved more successful. The cause of the war was the usual one—the refusal to pay tribute to the Great Emperor. The Burmese strenuously resisted the invasion, and as they employed elephants as engines of war, the Mongols, unaccustomed to this method of warfare, were at first taken at a great disadvantage.

In the battle, the Mongol archers, by discharging a storm of arrows, caused the elephants to stampede and to turn about and break through the lines of the Burmese. Seizing the opportunity offered by the confusion in their enemies' ranks, the Mongols made a fierce onslaught and won a glorious victory.

Owing to the Mongol invasions of Europe, the people of the West had their attention attracted to the East, and intercourse between Europe and Asia became more frequent. The church looked upon Asia as a great field for Missionary endeavor and we find the famous John de Monte Corvino established in Peking as Archbishop, directing a Christian propaganda.

**The Visit of
Marco Polo
(A.D. 1271).**

During the reign of Kublai, a visit was paid to Mongolia and China by the great Venetian traveller Marco Polo. He arrived in the year 1271, and resided in the Chinese Empire for seventeen years. He travelled as a commissioner of the Emperor through the provinces of Shansi, Shensi, Szechwan, and Yunnan, and was appointed to a high official position in the civil government at Yangchow. After his long sojourn in the Chinese Empire, he was sent to Persia as an escort to a Mongol Princess, who had been presented by Kublai as a consort to the Persian Khan. After accomplishing his mission, he returned to Venice, bringing to the people of Europe much interesting information in regard to China, and giving them their first real knowledge of what up to that time had been to the West a *terra incognita*. From the account which he gives of his travels, we learn that, in point of material civilization, China at that time was in many ways in advance of Europe. Making due allowance for possible exaggeration, the picture drawn by him presents to us a country with an efficient government, and a people marked by intelligence and industry.

**The
Construction
of the
Imperial Canal.**

Besides his warlike expeditions, Kublai sent out many peaceful missions to various countries, including, it is said, even so remote a country as Madagascar.

Of the Public Works carried out by this Emperor, the principal one was the reconstruction of the Imperial Grand Canal¹ between Hangehow and Tientsin.² It is about a thousand miles long and still forms one of the chief waterways of the Empire.

**The Extent
of the
Empire.**

Under Kublai Khan, the Chinese Empire became one of the largest of which we have any record in history. It counted as its subjects the immense population occupying the vast territories stretching from the Black Sea to the shores of the Yellow Sea, and from Northern Mongolia to the frontiers of Annam.

**The Successors
of
Kublai Khan.**

In 1294 the Great Khan died, and, as has often been the case with many of the world's mighty conquerors, no one was found capable of preserving what he had acquired. Gradually, the Mongols became assimilated with the Chinese, and, as they came more completely under the influence of Chinese civilization, they lost much of their original martial vigor, and their own identity disappeared among those whom they had conquered. As has been well said, "China is a sea that salts all the waters that flow into it."

Kublai was succeeded in 1295 by his grandson Temur,³ who was known as Ch'eng Tsung.⁴ During his reign, floods, famines, and earthquakes occurred in different parts of the Empire, rendering the people wretched, discontented, and inclined to rebellion. Under the Emperor Jên Tsung⁵ (1312-1321), who was both a scholarly and humane ruler, the Hanlin (the Forest of Pencils) was again restored, and the highest offices in the Empire were bestowed on those obtaining the third degree of Chin-Shih⁶ in the Imperial Examinations.

During the latter part of the Yüan Dynasty rebellions became more frequent, and numerous secret societies sprang up, having as their object insurrection against the Mongol government. The most famous of these was the "White Lily Society."

A famous pirate chief named Fang Kuo-chên¹ (1348) ravaged the Southern coasts of China. Every effort was made by the government to pacify him, and at times bribes and offers of official employment were employed to induce him to give up his depredations. He preferred, however, his piratical trade, and became so powerful that he even meditated seizing the throne for himself.

**The Rise of
Chu Yuan-chang²
(A.D. 1355).**

Among the chieftains of the numerous bands of rebels, was one named Chu Yuan-chang, who afterwards became the founder of the Ming Dynasty.³ He came from a town in the north-east of the Province of Anhui. When a young man all the other members of his family were carried off by a pestilence, and, acting on the impulse of grief, he entered a Buddhist Monastery. Here he resided in seclusion for several years, but afterwards, impelled by his sympathy with the national uprising against the Mongols, he put off his priest's robes and enrolled himself as a follower of one of the leaders of rebellion. In a short time he gave evidence of the qualities of a successful general, and was promoted to be the chief of one of the insurgent bands.

**The downfall
of the
Yüan Dynasty.**

Shun Ti⁴ (1333) was the last of the Emperors of the Yuan Dynasty. Being weak in character he fell under the influence of an unscrupulous and ambitious Prime Minister. He did nothing to propitiate the growing discontent of the Chinese people, but, on the contrary, resorted to many measures which only increased their exasperation. One of these unpopular measures was an attempt to shift the course of the Yellow River so as to make its waters empty themselves farther North, in the Gulf of Chihli.⁵ Notwithstanding the protests of many of his advisers, he insisted on having the work undertaken, and 170,000 men were employed in digging the new canal in the Province of Shantung. The work, which was carried on for six months, greatly impoverished the people owing to the heavy taxes they were forced to pay.

During the latter part of the reign of Shun Ti, Chu Yuan-chang, after overcoming most of the other rebel chieftains, seized

Nanking and made it his Capital. His success was popular with the people, who regarded him, not so much as a robber chieftain seeking his own advantage, as a possible deliverer from the rule of the Mongols. Even the pirate chief Fang Kuo-chên submitted to him and became his ally.

Shun Ti was strangely apathetic in the face of all his dangers, and was incapable of putting forth any strenuous efforts to oppose his foes.

In addition to the danger arising from the rebellion having Nanking as its centre, the Tartar tribes menaced the Empire from the North, and gradually the Emperor found himself hemmed in on all sides in his Capital at Peking. Disunion among the Mongol princes themselves, caused by trouble fomented by the heir-apparent to the throne, prevented their presenting a united front to their common foes.

The forces of Chu Yuan-chang were everywhere victorious, and one of his generals succeeded in capturing the city of Kai-fengfu. After this place had fallen, Chu Yuan-chang determined to make himself Emperor, and to establish a new Dynasty. He chose for the title of the new Dynasty the name "Ming," meaning "Brilliant," and took for himself the Imperial title of T'ai Tsu.¹ Peking, still in the hands of the Mongols, was closely invested, and the Emperor Shun Ti, to avoid falling into the hands of the Chinese, fled to his ancestral home in Mongolia. When Peking fell, T'ai Tsu gave orders that there should be no unnecessary slaughter, and in this way won a name for being merciful to his enemies.

Thus came to an end the Yüan Dynasty. We can partly account for it succumbing so quickly on the ground that after the time of Kublai, the Mongols had never been popular, and had forfeited the goodwill of the people. The Northerners, unaccustomed to luxury, while living on their wild steppes in Mongolia, became enervated and effeminate as soon as they accepted Chinese civilization, and thus lost the bold, intrepid spirit which made their forefathers such invincible warriors.

During the Yuan Dynasty the Chinese Drama received a great impetus. Both the drama and the novel owe much to the writers of this period.

CHAPTER XIV

China under the Chinese.
The Restoration of a Chinese Dynasty, The Ming
(A.D. 1368-1644).

The Emperor
T'ai Tsu
(A.D. 1368-1399)

Chu Yuan-chang, or T'ai Tsu, is more commonly known by the name of Hung Wu.¹ After ascending the throne, he constituted Nanking the Southern, and Kaifengfu, the Northern Capital. After securing firm possession of the Empire, he showed himself a wise ruler as well as an able general. He encouraged education by establishing schools in all cities and towns, and took the Hanlin Academy under his special protection. He also caused the laws of the country to be codified, and in many ways promoted the practical administration of justice in the local courts. As was natural a spirit of conservatism prevailed, and as far as possible the old régime was restored.

His generals, Suta² and Fuyuta,³ gained important victories over the Mongols in the North, and the Provinces of Shansi, Shensi, Kansu, Szechwan and Yunnan were reduced to order, and the boundaries of the Empire secured.

As a ruler he was frugal in expenditure, and discountenanced extravagance, attributing the downfall of the Mongol Dynasty to the fact that its rulers had been heedless of the wants of the people, and had recklessly wasted the public revenues. A lofty tower in Peking, erected by one of the Emperors of the Yuan Dynasty, was, by his orders, razed to the ground as a protest against squandering money for useless purposes.

During the latter part of his reign, the whole Empire enjoyed the blessing of peace. Amicable relations were established with

the King of Corea, and the Burmese were forced to submit and pay tribute.

It is estimated that at this time the population of China increased to sixty millions.

At the close of his reign, the Emperor T'ai Tsu appointed his grandson to succeed him, and left orders that none of his own sons should be allowed to attend his funeral. The reason for this strange injunction was to guard against their taking occasion, while at the Capital, to create disturbance and plunge the country into civil strife

Hui Ti¹

(A.D. 1399-1403).

Hui Ti, the grandson of T'ai Tsu, was sixteen years of age when he ascended the throne. His uncle, the Prince of Yen,² son of the late Emperor, contrary to the express wish of his father, presented himself at the Capital, and attended the Imperial funeral. Upon retiring, he immediately declared rebellion, and raised a large force for the purpose of attacking Hui Ti, and making himself Emperor. His soldiers were everywhere victorious, and Nanking fell before their assault. Upon entering this city, search was made for Hui Ti, and finally a charred corpse was produced, and declared to be the remains of the Emperor. The Prince of Yen gave orders that it should be accorded an Imperial funeral, and then, declaring the throne vacant, seized the Imperial power. The production of the corpse, however, had been only a ruse on the part of the Emperor's adherents, and Hui Ti, in the disguise of a Buddhist monk, had made his escape from the city, and fled to Szechwan. There he remained in seclusion in a monastery for forty years. He was afterwards discovered, from some expressions employed by him in a poem, and was induced to come forth and again play a part on the stage of public life.

**The Usurpation
of Prince Yen.**

Prince Yen, after usurping the throne, took the Dynastic title of Ch'eng Tsu,³ the title of his reign being Yung Lê⁴ (A.D. 1403-1425). During his reign, there was peace within the borders of the Empire, but the Emperor was called upon to suppress a civil revolution in Tonquin, which resulted in its being annexed to China. During

the reign of the succeeding Emperor, the government of Tonquim was entrusted to native officials, and the Chinese Empire only retained the right of overlordship, and of exacting a yearly tribute.

In A.D. 1421, in spite of the opposition manifested by the people, the Emperor removed his Capital to Peking.

Ch'eng Tsu was much interested in literary matters, and appointed a commission of scholars to compile an exhaustive encyclopedia. The work was completed in the year 1407, and contained 22,877 volumes, and a table of contents of 60 books. It was rightly considered as one of the great literary monuments of China. It was never printed, and there were only three transcripts. Two were lost at the downfall of the Ming Dynasty and the third perished in the flames of the Hanlin Library at the time of the Boxer outbreak in 1900.

**Inroads of the
Mongols.**

During the reign of the Emperor Ying Tsung¹ (A.D. 1436-1450), the Empire suffered severely from an invasion of the Mongols led by a chieftain named Yeh-hsien.² At this time, the Emperor was completely under the control of the chief of the Court Eunuchs, named Wang Chên.³ The latter, by his haughty treatment of the tribute-bearing Mongol envoys, and by his refusal to give them the customary presents, aroused the anger of the Mongol chiefs against the Empire.

Yeh-hsien, notwithstanding China's seeming strength, was aware of her real weakness, and, crossing the Northern frontier of the Empire at the head of an immense force, began to ravage the Northern Provinces. For the purpose of resisting the invasion, Wang Chên gathered an army of half a million of men, and, having induced the Emperor to accompany the expedition so as to inspire the troops with greater confidence, advanced to meet the enemy at T'u Muh.⁴ There he strongly intrenched his force before the hostile army came up. When Yeh-hsien arrived, he realized the extreme difficulty of carrying the fortifications by storm, and resorted to treachery. He proposed terms of peace acceptable to the Chinese, but as the latter were withdrawing, in the belief that the campaign was at an end, he suddenly attacked

them while they were passing through a narrow defile in the mountains. The Chinese, taken by surprise, and hampered by their confined position, were unable to make any effective resistance, and were almost completely annihilated. During the fight, Wang Chên was killed, and the Emperor taken prisoner.

The Mongols held the Emperor for ransom, but although the sum demanded was not exorbitant, for some strange reason the ransom money was never paid, and the Emperor was left in the hands of his captors, his brother Ching Ti¹ or Tai Tsung² (1450) being placed upon the throne. Through the energy of a Chinese general named Yu-chien,³ the Mongols were prevented from carrying the invasion of the Empire further, and Peking was saved from falling into their hands. After Yeh-hsien perceived that he derived no benefit from keeping the Emperor a prisoner, he allowed him to return to Peking. Ying Tsung was sent back with Imperial state, but as his brother Ching Ti was unwilling to abdicate, he was forced to retire for a time into private life. During his brother's illness, by a *coup d'état*, he regained the throne, and ruled over the Empire for another eight years. It was during this period that "The Complete Geographical Record of the Empire" under the Ming Dynasty was published. It consists of ninety volumes and is one of the most celebrated works in Chinese literature.

Shortly before his death, Ying Tsung issued an edict decreeing that no slaves and concubines should be immolated at his burial, thus abolishing a barbarous practice introduced by the Mongols, and followed by the early Ming Emperors.

During the reigns of Hsien Tsung⁴ (A.D. 1465-1488), and Hsiao Tsung⁵ (A.D. 1488-1506) who who in turn succeeded Ying Tsung, the Ming Dynasty reached the zenith of its glory. Many important public works were undertaken, such as the digging of a canal between Tungchow⁶ and the Peiho River,⁷ thus making it possible for vessels to travel by inland waters all the way from the Yangtse River to the Capital. The Great Wall in the North was repaired,

**The Zenith of the
Ming Dynasty.**

and the important trade centre for Central China, Hami,¹ was captured from the Tartars

**The First
European
Traders arrive in
China.**

In the reign of Wu Tsung² (A.D. 1506-1622) occurred an event which may be considered to be the first step in bringing China into closer commercial relations with the West. In 1511 the Portuguese trader Raphael Perestrello with a small fleet of vessels, arrived off the coast of Canton, and six years later Fernão Peres De Andrade entered the Canton River with two ships and asked for the privilege of opening commercial intercourse. He was favourably received by the Chinese officials, and allowed to proceed to Peking and to reside at the Court. This auspicious beginning was doomed to a speedy eclipse, as a short time afterwards, a second Portuguese fleet under the command of De Andrade's brother appeared in Chinese waters and committed such acts of outrage and piracy along the coast from Ningpo to Foochow that the goodwill of the Chinese was turned into the most bitter hatred. De Andrade was seized in the Capital, and, after being confined for some time in prison, was beheaded. This act of reprisal is hardly to be wondered at when we take into consideration the enormities the Portuguese had perpetrated at Ningpo and Foochow. Shortly after, a great massacre of the Portuguese at Ningpo took place, and those who escaped were forced to flee to Macao, where they were allowed to settle, in return for an annual rental.

**The Japanese
harass the
Coast of China.**

The reign of the next Emperor Shih Tsung³ (A.D. 1522-1567) was a troublous one, owing to the repeated invasions of the Mongols in the North under a chief named Anta⁴ and on account of the piratical expeditions of the Japanese on the Chinese coast. The Japanese had never forgiven the invasion of their country by Kublai Khan, and were galled by the contemptuous way in which they were regarded by the Chinese. The immediate cause of the trouble was the refusal of the Chinese to grant trading privileges to the Islanders. In the course of their marauding expeditions the Japanese harried the coasts of China, captured Ningpo.

Shanghai, and Soochow, and carried off a large quantity of spoil. After the Southern coast had suffered a long time from these attacks, the Imperial Government was aroused to the necessity of taking steps to put a stop to them, and a large force was dispatched against the invaders, with the result that the Japanese were obliged temporarily to desist from their piratical incursions.

**The Decline
of the
Ming Dynasty.**

We now come to the period when the glory of the Mings began to wane, and signs of the break-up of the Dynasty appeared. The Emperor Shên Tsung,¹ more familiarly known by the title of his reign as Wan Li,² occupied the throne from 1573 to 1620. When raised to the position of Emperor he was still a child, but, owing to the wisdom of his mother and the loyal support of his ministers, the first part of his reign was free from any serious disturbances.

The principal events of his reign were as follows:—

(1) A conflict with the Japanese (A.D. 1592). The Japanese Regent named Fashiba³ (known to the Chinese as P'ing Hsiu-Chi,⁴ and to the Japanese as Hideyoshi), who had raised himself by his ability and courage from the position of a peasant to that of a warrior chief, resolved upon conquering Corea and China. First he sent out expeditions to invade Corea, and the important harbour of Fusan⁵ was seized. Thence he advanced upon the Capital, Seoul,⁶ and the King of Corea was compelled to flee. The latter, in his extremity, called upon Wan Li for assistance; the Emperor was not slow in answering the appeal of his vassel, and an army was dispatched to Corea to drive out the Japanese. Many conflicts took place between the two hostile armies, and after a great battle fought at Pingyang, the Japanese were forced to retreat. In the south western waters the Japanese plans were frustrated by the Korean Admiral Yu, who scattered the Japanese ships. At length in 1598, the death of Fashiba (who in the meantime had become Tycoon⁷ or Ex-Regent) brought the struggle to a close, and terms of peace were arranged. The Japanese were allowed to establish a settlement near the harbor of Fusan, and thus gained an open door into the Kingdom of Corea.

(2) Further Intercourse with Europeans.

After the Portuguese, the Spaniards made their appearance in the East. Instead of settling on the mainland they made their headquarters in the Philippine Islands,¹ which they held until the Spanish-American War. The bulk of the population at Manila,² the Capital of the Islands, was Chinese. The Spaniards treated these Chinese settlers with systematic cruelty and oppression and at one time, fearing lest the Chinese population might become too numerous, they inaugurated a terrible massacre, hunting down the Chinese as if they were wild beasts, and slaughtering them in immense numbers. This outrageous barbarity of the people from the West doubtless had the effect of making the Chinese more disinclined than ever to enter into any close relations with the strangers from over the seas. Somewhat later, in 1622, the Dutch came to the East, and, after frequent unsuccessful attempts to gain a foothold on the mainland, settled in the Pescadores.³ They were driven out from these Islands by the Chinese, and compelled to retreat to Formosa, where they erected two forts one at Tamsui, and the other, called Fort Zealandia, at Anping.

(3) The coming of the Jesuit Missionaries to China.

In the Ming Dynasty the Jesuits sought to gain an entrance into China. The great missionary St. Francis Xavier, one of the two first adherents of Loyola, after preaching Christianity in India, was desirous of extending the sphere of his labors to China. The Chinese officials, however, refusing him permission to land on the coast, he was forced to take up his residence on the Island of San Cian,⁴ near Macao,⁵ and there, within sight of the mainland, he died in the year 1552. He was followed by Michael Roger and Matteo Ricci, who were allowed to settle in the Kwangtung Province. In the reign of Wan Li, Ricci found his way to Peking, and, through his knowledge of Astronomy and Mechanics, gained considerable influence at the Court. He published a translation of Euclid and some Astronomical works, and rendered good service in correcting the Chinese Calendar.

(4) The invasion of Nurhachu.¹

In the wild region North of Liaotung, in the country now called Manchuria, lived the Niuche tribes,² Tartars of the same blood as the Kins. They were divided into a great many clans, one of which was called the Manchu. It is interesting to note that the word "Manchu" means "Pure," and that when the Manchus finally came to rule over China they called their Dynasty the "Ch'ing," a Chinese word of the same significance as Manchu.

This clan was settled in the district some thirty miles East of the city of Moukden,³ and under the leadership of Nurhachu gradually obtained supremacy over all the other clans, and united them into one confederacy.

The Emperor Wan Li roused their ire against China by making the mistake of championing the cause of a certain chief named Nikan,⁴ the principal opponent of Nurhachu among the Niuche tribes. After Nurhachu had consolidated the Niuche tribes, he determined on the invasion of China. Collecting a well disciplined force of 40,000 men, in 1618, he invaded Liaotung. Before setting out on the expedition, he drew up a document, stating his grievances against China. This he commanded to be read first in the hearing of the army, so as to stir up the hearts of his soldiers, and then to be burnt, so that his tale of injuries might ascend up on high and influence Heaven to prosper him in his undertaking.

When the Manchus advanced into Liaotung, the Chinese were completely taken by surprise. A large army was immediately dispatched to oppose their progress. The Chinese commander, however, made the mistake of dividing his forces into four divisions, and these were successively defeated by the Manchus. At the capture of the city of Liaoyang, the inhabitants acknowledged allegiance to their new masters by shaving the front part of their heads. This is the first mention of a custom that afterwards became universal throughout China.

The Manchus were unsuccessful in their attempt to take the city of Ningyuan,⁵ situated to the north of the Great Wall, as it was defended by the Chinese with much vigor. Cannon⁶ borrowed

from the Portuguese, brought from Macao, supplemented by others made under the superintendence of the Jesuit Missionaries, were placed upon the battlements of the city, and their deadly fire caused the Manchus to retire from the assault.

Just as the Manchu power, eventually destined to overthrow the Ming Dynasty, loomed up on the horizon, the Emperor Wan Li died. With his death the decadence of the Empire became more clearly marked, and only a short time elapsed before the Dynasty tottered to its fall.

**Manchu
Successes.**

In 1625 Nurhachu established his Capital at Moukden. In 1627 T'ai Tsung¹ succeeded his father Nurhachu. After invading Corea, and obtaining the submission of that country, in 1629, at the head of 100,000 men, he advanced on China. Realizing the difficulty of taking the city of Ningyuan, he made a *détour*, led his army to the North of Peking, and encamped not far from the city walls. The Chinese general in command of the forces at Ningyuan, as soon as he heard of this move, hastened to the relief of the Capital. When these Chinese reinforcements arrived, T'ai Tsung finding it impossible to invest the city successfully, abandoned the attempt and retired to his own territory. Thus the danger to the Capital was temporarily averted.

**The Downfall
of the
Ming Dynasty.**

While this dreaded foe was threatening China on the North, a serious rebellion broke out within the boundaries of the Empire in Shansi and Shensi under the leadership of two men, named Li Tzū-chêng² and Chang Hsien-chung.³ City after city fell into their hands, until, elated by their success, one of the chieftains. Li Tzū-chêng, assumed the title of Emperor, and moved on Peking, avowing his intention to establish a new Dynasty to be known as the Tai Shun.⁴ The Emperor of China, Chuang Lieh Ti,⁵ was taken by surprise, his Capital closely invested, and all means of escape cut off. Despairing of his life, the Emperor, with one of his faithful attendants, ascended the Mei Shan,⁶ or Coal Hill, situated to the north of the Imperial Palace, in Peking, and, after looking down on the vast host assembled to destroy his Capital, ended his troubles by committing suicide.

Li Tzŭ-ch'êng then took possession of Peking, but his days of triumph were few, for he was soon to encounter another foe. A Chinese general named Wu San-kuei,¹ who had been appointed to the defence of the city of Ningyuan, against the Manchus, actuated by motives of personal hatred to Li Tsŭ-ch'êng, determined to play the rôle of avenger of the Emperor. To effect this purpose he entered into an alliance with the Manchus, who were only too willing to participate in the struggle, of which up to this time they had been idle spectators. The rebel Li advanced against Wu San-kuei, and a severe engagement was fought near Shanhai-kwan.² The fortune of battle seemed about to declare itself on the side of the rebels, when a large force under the command of the Manchu Regent,³ Durgan,⁴ made its appearance upon the scene and turned the scales. The rebels took to flight and were followed in hot pursuit by Wu San-kuei. Li Tzŭ-ch'êng fled to Peking, and, after setting fire to his palace, continued his flight westward. The Manchu Regent appointed Wu San-kuei to conduct the pursuit, and the latter carried out his orders so successfully that the army of the rebels after frequent engagements was finally annihilated and the rebel chief slain.

In the meantime Durgan entered Peking in triumph, and, according to agreement with Wu San-kuei, rewarded his own people for their services in helping to suppress the rebellion, by establishing a Manchu Dynasty. He sent for his nephew, the Khan of the Manchus,⁵ a child of six years of age,⁶ and placing him upon the throne inaugurated the Ch'ing Dynasty.

Thus amid bloodshed and rebellion, in the year 1644, passed away the once glorious Ming Dynasty, and China again came under the rule of the Northern Tartars.

CHAPTER XV.

The Period of the Manchu Conquest.

**The Mings
attempt to set
up an Empire in
the South.**

The child placed upon the throne by Durgan assumed the Dynastic Title of Shih Tsu Chang,¹ but is generally known by the title of his reign as Shun Chih.²

As the Manchus were conciliatory in their treatment of the Chinese in the Capital, the people of the North submitted readily to their conquerors, but at Nanking and in the Provinces south of the Yangtse an attempt was made to set up a successor of Chuang Lieh Ti and to continue the Ming Dynasty. Fuh Wang,³ a grandson of Wan Li, had the best claim to the throne, and was proclaimed Emperor, but the selection proved an unfortunate one, as he was lacking in ability, courage, and energy, and incapable of waging a successful contest for the Empire. He was supported by an able and patriotic scholar named Shih K'o-fa,⁴ who although not a military magistrate, was appointed at the head of the army. The Manchus after an unsuccessful attempt to arrange terms with Shih K'o-fa, advanced in great numbers toward the South, and captured with but little difficulty the cities they passed on their march.

**The Seizure of
Yangchow.**

Shih K'o-fa made a determined stand at the city of Yangchow, situated near the lower waters of the Yangtse, in the Province of Kiangsu, close to the junction of the Grand Canal with that river. It was suggested to Shih K'o-fa that he could gain a material advantage over the enemy if he would flood the country, but this he refused

to do on the ground that it might cause greater loss of life to the Chinese than to the Manchus, and defended his policy by saying "First the people, and next the Dynasty." The fighting lasted seven days, and resulted in the Manchus forcing an entrance into the doomed city. Then followed an awful scene of bloodshed and destruction, the inhabitants being brutally massacred, and the buildings razed to the ground. Shih K'o-fa himself lost his life while attempting to make his escape, or, as is more likely, ended his days by committing suicide.

**The Rout of the
Mings.**

The Manchus after capturing Yangchow advanced upon Nanking. The worthless Emperor Fuh Wang, aroused from a drunken debauch, hurried off towards Wuhu, but was pursued by a body of horsemen, captured, and taken prisoner to Nanking, where he was executed.

Three other Ming Emperors successively attempted to occupy the throne; the first, Chang Wang,¹ reigned only for three days in Hangchow, and then submitted to the Manchus; the second, T'ang Wang,² with the help of a pirate chief named Ching Chih-loong,³ continued the contest for a longer period, but was gradually driven to the South, and was finally captured at the city of Tingchow and executed. Ningpo, Shanghai, Wenchow, and Tai-chow rapidly fell into the hands of the Manchus, and as each city was taken the inhabitants were forced to shave the front of their heads and to adopt the queue as a badge of servitude. The third to aspire to the throne was Kuei Wang,⁴ a great-grandson of Wan Li. At first he met with considerable success, and was able to make himself acknowledged in the Provinces of Kwangsi and Kwangtung. His success was, however, temporary, and before long the Manchus by their energy and vigor annexed these Provinces, and drove the would-be Emperor into Burmah. The Burmese upon the appearance of the army in pursuit delivered him up into the hands of his enemy. According to one account, despairing of life and realizing that he could expect no mercy at the hands of the enemy, Kuei Wang committed suicide by strangling himself with a silken scarf.

**The Pirate
Koshinga.¹**

The pirate chief Ching Chih-loong, who had espoused the cause of the Mings, continued to harass the coasts of China with his fleet. The Manchus, unaccustomed to fighting on water, were generally worsted in their naval battles, and thus they used every possible means to make terms with this troublesome enemy. They held out the most tempting offers of official rank and emolument, and finally inveigled him into going to Peking, where he was kept some time as a State prisoner, in honorable confinement. His son Koshinga, whose mother was a Japanese, was a very remarkable man. In his childhood, he was distinguished for his precociousness, and at the age of fifteen was successful in the Imperial Literary Examinations. He persistently refused to follow his father to Peking, and in command of a fleet sailed to the Pescadores, where he fortified himself strongly, and then preceeded to sally out against the Manchus, and to harry the coast of Fukien. Afterwards he advanced northwards, and making his headquarters on the Island of Tsoongming,² at the mouth of the Yangtse, ventured to sail up the river, in hope of recapturing Nanking from the Manchus. This attempt proved unsuccessful, and he was obliged to return with his fleet to the South

**The Principal
Events of the
Reign of Shun
Chih.**

We have already spoken of the turbulent character of the early part of this Emperor's reign. After the death of Durgan, who had ruled wisely and firmly during the minority of the Emperor, Shun Chih himself took the reins of government, and continued to carry on the policy of his able minister.

A rebellion which broke out in Szechwan was suppressed. Among the important measures passed during his reign were the following:—

Henceforth no eunuch of the Palace was to be allowed to hold any official position in the Empire. This injunction was necessary as the safety of the throne had been threatened more than once by the eunuchs becoming too powerful and stirring up civil dissension.

Another important measure was the institution of the Grand Council,³ which next to the Emperor was the highest power in the

Empire Its membership did not exceed five, part of whom were Chinese and part Manchus. The members possessed the privilege of obtaining a personal audience from the Emperor whenever they desired. They outranked the members of the Six Boards¹ and those of the Board of Censors². By giving the Chinese equal representation with the Manchus in all official appointments the new Dynasty did much to remove the hatred with which it was at first regarded. All the Boards until 1906 were organized with two Presidents, one Chinese and one Manchu and two Chinese and two Manchu Vice-presidents.

DIVISION IV.

The Struggle between the Chinese and Western European Nations (A.D. 1662-1900.)

CHAPTER XVI.

The Consolidation of the Manchu Empire under K'ang Hsi¹ (A.D. 1662-1723.)

The Accession of K'ang Hsi (A.D. 1662).

Shun Chih before his death appointed as his successor his second son, known in history by the title of his reign as K'ang Hsi. When he ascended the throne, he was only eight years of age, and during his minority the administration of the government was entrusted to four Regents ²

The Death of Koshinga (A.D. 1662).

After the failure of the attempt to take Nanking, Koshinga made an attack upon Formosa, and with the aid of the Chinese in the island succeeded in expelling the Dutch, who had settled there after they had been driven out of the Pescadores. Koshinga took the title of King of Formosa, but did not live long to enjoy his triumph, dying at the age of thirty-eight in a paroxysm of anger.

**European
Embassies come
to Peking
(A.D. 1664).**

In 1664 two European Embassies arrived at Peking, hoping to open diplomatic relations with the Empire; one was from Russia, coming overland by way of Siberia, and the other from Holland, coming by the sea. The Manchu Regents treated both Embassies in the haughty manner with which they were accustomed to treat all foreigners. The Ambassadors were told that they would be expected to perform the ceremony of the "k'ow-tow,"¹ when admitted to the presence of the Emperor. The Dutch yielded to this demand, but gained little from their compliance, as the Imperial consent could only be obtained for an embassy to enter China once every eight years, and then it was not to consist of more than one hundred men, of whom only twenty would be allowed to enter the Capital. The Russians refused to perform the "k'ow-tow," and having acquired no privileges departed for home the same way they came, to report their failure to their Czar Alexis.

The Chinese insisted thus strongly on the "k'ow-tow," as it would indicate on the part of those who performed it that their countries were tributary to China.

**The Work
of Christian
Missionaries.**

In 1667, owing to a lack of harmony among the Regents, K'ang Hsi dismissed them and assumed control of the government. The change was welcome to the Christian Missionaries, as the Regents had not been at all favorably disposed towards them or their work. Adam Schaal, who had been appointed tutor to the young Emperor, had been thrown into prison, and on a false charge condemned to death by the slow process (Ling Ch'ih,² the cutting up into a thousand pieces). The sentence, however, was never carried out, and Schaal was left to languish in prison until his death, at the age of seventy-eight.

K'ang Hsi, reversing the policy of the Regents, showed favour to the Jesuit priests, and issued an edict permitting Missionaries to return to their churches, and to minister to their converts but not to proselytise among the heathen.

In the meantime Père Verbiest, a Dutch priest, had succeeded Père Schaal at Peking. He was appointed tutor to the Emperor, and distinguished himself by correcting some serious errors in the Calendar issued by the Astronomical Board.¹ As this cast reflection upon the accuracy of the knowledge of the officials constituting this Board, it resulted in making for him many bitter enemies at the Court.

**The Rebellion of
Wu San-kuei²
(A.D. 1674).**

At the close of the struggle between the Manchus and the Chinese, three of the most distinguished generals who had assisted the Manchus were rewarded by receiving the title of Prince, and were appointed to rule over large territories. Wu San-kuei was commissioned to govern the Provinces of Kweichow and Yunnan.

K'ang Hsi perceived more clearly than the Regents the dangers which might arise if these satraps became too powerful, and determined to limit their authority. Of the Three Princes, the one he most dreaded was Wu San-kuei, and although the son of the latter was held as a hostage at the Capital, the Emperor deciding to put the father's loyalty to the test, sent a messenger summoning him to appear immediately at the Court. The younger Wu secretly warned his father of the danger he would incur by complying with the Imperial mandate, and advised him to refuse to obey. Acting on this advice the elder Wu pleaded old age, and begged to be excused from making the long journey. The Emperor, dissatisfied with this excuse, and having his suspicions more fully aroused, sent commissioners to inquire into the conduct of Wu San-kuei, and to discover whether he was plotting rebellion. Wu received the officials with great respect, but when repeatedly pressed to accompany them to Peking finally avowed his purpose of revolt in these words, "I will come to Peking, but it will be at the head of 80,000 soldiers."

Thereupon he raised the standard of revolt, and K'ang Hsi, by way of reprisal, put the younger Wu to death. This news when it reached the father added to the intensity of his already

existing hatred. In a short time, the whole of the South and West of the Empire was in a state of rebellion, while at the same time civil dissensions broke out within the walls of the Capital, and the Mongols made an invasion from the North

K'ang Hsi proved himself equal to the emergency, and having crushed the Northern invasion began a vigorous campaign against Wu San-kuei. The contest was waged with varying success on both sides, and might have been continued indefinitely had it not been for the sudden death of Wu San-kuei, in 1678. With his death, the backbone of the rebellion was broken, and although his grandson attempted to prolong the struggle he was driven from city to city, and at last, in order to escape falling into the hands of the Manchus, committed suicide. When this formidable uprising had been suppressed, great joy was manifested in the Capital, the Emperor writing a poem to commemorate the occasion.

**The Conquest
of Formosa
(A.D. 1683).**

Upon the death of Koshinga his son succeeded as ruler of Formosa, but K'ang Hsi after pacifying the "Eighteen Provinces" determined to undertake the subjugation of the island. Three hundred ships with 12,000 men were dispatched to the Pescadores, where a serious naval engagement took place resulting in the rebel fleet being put to flight. The Imperial ships gave chase and, upon arriving at the harbour of Lurmum¹ in Formosa, being favoured by an exceptionally high tide, were able to sail close into the shore, and bombard the town. This high tide was regarded by the rebels as an intervention of Providence on behalf of the enemy, for they recalled the fact that Koshinga had been helped in the same way when he seized the place from the Dutch. Consequently, they submitted to the invaders without a struggle, yielding to what seemed to be a decree of Fate.

Formosa now came under the formal rule of the Manchus, and, for a time, K'ang Hsi reigned with undisputed sway over the whole Empire.

**The War with
Russia
(A.D. 1689).**

At this time the Chinese came into collision with the Russians on the Amour River¹. The Russians had built a fort at Albazin on the upper courses of the river, and the Chinese suspected them of planning an advance towards the South into Chinese territory. In order to prevent this, the Chinese troops attacked and destroyed the fort, and carried off some of the Russian garrison to Peking.

By the treaty of Nerchinsk, made in 1689, peace was declared, and it was agreed that the Russians should be allowed to construct a new fort at Nerchinsk in place of the one at Albazin, and that the Gorbitza and Argun Rivers should be considered the boundary line between the two Empires.

This was the first treaty China ever entered into with a foreign power, and was the precursor of the numerous conventions and agreements that were to follow in succeeding years.

**The Conquest
of Central Asia
(A.D. 1696).**

In 1680, Galdan,² chief of the Eleuths,³ a Kalmuch tribe⁴ occupying territory in the neighbourhood of Ih, declared war against the Khalkas,⁵ a tribe of Mongols that had submitted to the Manchus. The Chief of the Khalkas fled for help to the Court of K'ang Hsi, and, as a vassal of the Empire, claimed protection. Galdan, upon learning this threatened that in case K'ang Hsi refused to deliver up into his hands the fugitive chieftain, he would immediately undertake an invasion of the Empire. The Emperor's answer to this menace was to march a large army composed of three divisions to attack the forces of Galdan, with the result that the latter was disastrously defeated. The Emperor restored their territory to the Khalkas, and, after the death of Galdan, appointed one of this Chief's nephews to rule over the Eleuths, annexing all of their territory East of the Altai Mountains,⁶ and leaving to him only that portion which was to the West. In this way a large part of Central Asia became tributary to China.

**Persecution
of the
Roman Catholic
Missionaries.**

As we have seen, K'ang Hsi was at first liberal in his policy towards the Jesuit Missionaries, who, in consequence of the Imperial favor, met with much success in their propaganda. In the Provinces of Kiangsi, Kiangsu, and Anhwei they had built one hundred churches, and had enrolled 100,000 converts

When the Dominicans and Franciscans reached China, many disputes arose between them and the Jesuits as to the terminology to be employed in translating the word God, and as to the permissibility of ancestral worship, which up to this time had been sanctioned by the Jesuits. An appeal was made to the Pope to settle the points at issue, and he pronounced a judgment unfavorable to the Jesuits, forbidding ancestral worship and the use of the terms T'ien and Shang Ti¹ for the name of God, and commanding that the term T'ien Chu² (Heavenly Lord) should be adopted instead

The Emperor was highly incensed at an appeal for the settlement of the dispute being carried to a Court outside the Empire, and especially so as the decision given was contrary to his own opinions. He accordingly issued a decree forbidding Missionaries to remain in China without special permission from himself. He allowed a few to reside in Peking, but ordered all who continued to live secretly in the interior after the promulgation of his decree to be severely punished.

**The Literary
Works of K'ang
Hsi's Reign.**

K'ang Hsi was a great patron of literature, and during his reign the splendid standard dictionary known as K'ang Hsi's Dictionary³ was compiled by a commission of scholars appointed by the
* Emperor. A huge encyclopedia consisting of 5,026 volumes was also published, and K'ang Hsi himself was the author of sixteen famous moral maxims, which were afterwards annotated and expanded by his son Yung Chêng,⁴ and formed into the book called the Sacred Edict,⁵ a work which was formerly read and expounded throughout the Empire in a prominent place in every town and village on the first and fifteenth days of every month.

**Peter the Great
sends an
Embassy to
China (A.D. 1719).**

Peter the Great of Russia, in the year 1719, sent an Embassy, headed by M. Ismaloff, to the Court at Peking. An honorable reception was accorded to its members, the ceremony of the "k'ow-tow" not being insisted upon at the Imperial audience. M. Ismaloff returned to Russia much elated at having accomplished what he naturally considered a very successful mission. A caravan was immediately fitted out in Russia, and sent to China for the purpose of opening up trade between the two countries, but when it arrived at Peking, K'ang Hsi was on his death-bed, and the attitude of the high officials at the Court had undergone a complete change. The Russians were treated with scant courtesy, and sent back to their own land by way of Siberia, the Chinese declaring that all commercial intercourse between the two countries must be confined to the frontiers. Czar Peter's great dream for tapping the wealth of China thus ended in a discouraging failure.

**The Death
of K'ang Hsi
(A.D. 1723).**

In the year 1723, the Emperor passed away at the age of sixty-nine. Just before his death he appointed his fourth son, Yung Chêng, as his successor.

Thus ended one of the most brilliant reigns in the whole of Chinese history, for K'ang Hsi was a great warrior, an able scholar, and a wise ruler. On the whole he was just, and aimed at doing what was right, and for the interest of his country. In his treatment of foreigners he was more liberal than those by whom he was surrounded. He was laborious and self-sacrificing on behalf of his people, and did much towards rendering China a prosperous and powerful nation. He is justly entitled to renown as the one who completed the Manchu conquest of the Empire.

CHAPTER XVII.

Attempts on the part of Western Powers to open Diplomatic and Commercial Relations with China.

**The Accession
of the Emperor
Yung Chêng
(A.D. 1723).**

The new Emperor, who was forty-four years of age, was a man of fine character and in many ways seemed a fitting successor to his illustrious father. He was obliged however to incarcerate some of his brothers, and to banish others, because, actuated by jealousy, they plotted rebellion against him as soon as he came to the throne

**The Important
Events of his
Reign.**

Yung Chêng was less favourably inclined towards the Jesuit missionaries than his father, and with the exception of those in his employ at Peking they were deported to Macao, and forbidden, on pain of death, to carry on an active propaganda. Over three hundred churches were destroyed, and 300,000 converts were left without the oversight of foreign priests.

During his reign, further attempts were made on the part of Western Nations to enter into closer relations with China. In 1727, Count Sava Vladislavitché arrived at Peking for the purpose of revising the Treaty of Nerchinsk. On this occasion, a Russian Ecclesiastical Mission obtained a permanent footing in Peking, and a number of Russian youths were left in the Capital to engage in the study of the Chinese language.

In the same year, a Portuguese Embassy reached the Capital. In the audiences granted to the Russian and Portuguese Embassies it is noteworthy that the credentials of the Western Rulers were placed directly in the hands of the Emperor, and not, as was customary, on a table in front of him.

**The Death of
Yung Chêng
(A.D. 1735).**

A gloom was cast over the closing years of the reign of Yung Chêng by serious disasters occurring in different parts of the Empire, and by rebellious outbreaks in Mongolia

The death of the Emperor occurred very suddenly, before he had appointed an heir-apparent. Although an able and conscientious ruler he is not esteemed as highly by the Chinese as his father. He was fond of literature, and was himself a voluminous writer, and his special claim to remembrance is due to this fact as much as to anything else. He was anti-foreign in his sentiments, and dreaded the introduction of Christianity into the Empire, because it appeared to him to set up an *imperium in imperio*, and to establish an authority which might rival his own in his dealings with his subjects. He looked with disfavor on throwing down any of the old barriers erected for the exclusion of foreigners, and believed that an influx of Europeans foreboded much evil to his country. His motto may be said to have been "China for the Chinese."

**The Accession
of the Emperor
Ch'ien Lung'
(A.D. 1736).**

Ch'ien Lung at the age of twenty-five succeeded his father, and on account of his youth and inexperience associated with himself four Regents to carry on the government.

His first act was one of clemency, and consisted in releasing the brothers of his father from their confinement, and permitting them to wear the yellow girdle again, the distinguishing badge of the Manchu princes directly related to the reigning Emperor.

**The
Suppression of
Rebellions
(A.D. 1746).**

A rebellion which had broken out in the South-western provinces spread to the provinces of Kwangsi and Hunan. The generals sent to suppress it, proving incompetent, were put to death—the punishment usually meted out to unsuccessful generals in China. General Chang Kwang-sze,² who was appointed in their place, managed to subdue the rebels and to pacify the disturbed districts. He was not, however, so successful in his attempt to put down a rising in Szechwan and, after his recall, suffered the same penalty as those he had supplanted.

**A Serious
Outbreak in
Mongolia
(A.D. 1753).**

During the first ten years of Ch'ien Lung's reign, the Mongols had been ruled by a chieftain named Tsê Ling¹. After his death in 1745, all the elements of disorder were let loose. For a short time, one of Tsê Ling's sons, by name Dardsha,² gained the supremacy, and maintained it until one of his relatives, named Dayatsi,³ with an ally named Amursana,⁴ rose to dispute it. After repeated battles Dardsha was defeated and slain. The two allies then fell into dispute over the question as to which was to hold the place of chieftain, and Amursana being worsted in battle, fled to the Court at Peking to claim the assistance of the Emperor. He was cordially received, and an army was sent to chastise Dayatsi, and to establish Amursana as ruler over the Mongols, under the protection of the Chinese Empire. After this had been effected, Amursana was content for a while to act as an obedient vassal of the Emperor, but later, ambitious to make himself an independent ruler, he began to plot rebellion. Ch'ien Lung dispatched a powerful expedition against him, and Amursana was forced to flee into Russian territory, where he shortly afterwards died. This rebellion in Mongolia convinced the Emperor of the necessity of strengthening his Western frontier, and led to the annexation of Eastern Turkestan.

This was not accomplished however without a struggle. The Mahommedans made a desperate resistance, and for a time held the Chinese generals at bay. Finally Kashgar and Yarkand were taken by assault and Turkestan became an acknowledged dependency of the Chinese Empire. When the two successful generals returned to Peking, the Emperor himself came out to welcome them, and rewarded one with a dukedom, and the other with an earldom.

**The Return of the
Turguts⁵ to the
Chinese Empire
(A.D. 1763).**

While the tribes on the Mongolian frontier were in a ferment, the Turguts fled from the turmoil across the steppes of the Kirghiz⁶ into Russian territory, and were permitted by the Russians to settle in the fertile country near the Volga River.

¹ 零策 ² 扎爾達 ³ 齊瓦達 ⁴ 納撒爾睦阿
⁵ 特扈爾土 ⁶ 肯爾北

Here they remained for half a century in tranquillity, but never became reconciled to their exile. They were made restless by the exactions of the tax-gatherers, and the compulsory proscription of the best of their men to serve in the Russian army. At the news of Amursana's death, they determined to migrate back to their original home. Preparations for their flight were made with the greatest secrecy and, in the dead of winter, in the year 1771, a vast host of men, women and children, numbering 160,000, started out on the long and perilous journey. When they had accomplished the first stage, they were overtaken by the Cossacks,¹ who had learnt of their departure and had been sent to bring them back. One division of the large host of fugitives was cut to pieces by the merciless pursuers. For eight months, the remnant marched through the deserts, and over the steppes of Central Asia, harassed by enemies, and distressed by famine, thirst, and disease. They re-entered Chinese territory near the shores of Lake Tengis, to which point, Ch'ien Lung, upon learning of their approach, had dispatched a force of cavalry to receive them. The fugitives, by this time reduced to 70,000, upon sight of the waters of the Lake burst into uncontrollable frenzy, and rushed forward to assuage their torturing thirst. The wild Bashkis, who had been hanging on the outskirts of the caravan, seized the opportunity afforded by their confusion to attack them, with great fury. On the shores of the Lake a terrible conflict was waged, and thousands of the combatants perished. A large number were drowned, and the waters of the lake were dyed with their blood. At last the Chinese army appeared on the scene, and, driving off the Bashkis, saved what was left of the Turguts. Ch'ien Lung assigned them lands to cultivate, and they settled down once more in peace and safety.

**A War with
Burmah
(A.D. 1768).**

In 1768 trouble broke out with Burmah, probably caused by incursions of Burmese marauders into Chinese territory. At first, the Burmese defended their territory with much bravery, and succeeded in defeating the army sent against them by the Emperor. Afterwards, a large force was dispatched against them, and the King of

Burmah was compelled to sign a treaty by which perpetual peace was proclaimed between the two countries, and the Burmese agreed to pay a triennial tribute to the Court at Peking. This tribute was thenceforth regularly paid, and was continued for some time even after the British Government had annexed Burmah.

**A Conflict with
the Aborigines.**

One of the aboriginal tribes of China, the Miaotsz, after being expelled from their early home, had settled on the borders of the Province of Szechwan. In their new home they preserved their ancient customs, and in the mountain fastnesses lived almost as an independent people. As constant conflicts took place between them and the Chinese by whom they were surrounded, Ch'ien Lung decided to inflict upon them a severe punishment. He was roused to take this step because the Chief of the Miaotsz had murdered two Chinese envoys, and had burnt the letter which they carried from the Emperor. Owing to the mountainous character of the country, the task of leading an army to invade it was full of difficulty. The only roads were mountain tracks, and there was constant danger of the Chinese force falling into an ambush. After severe fighting, the Chinese succeeded in reducing every stronghold except one. Here the Miaotsz made a desperate stand, and finally only yielded when compelled to do so by hunger. Ch'ien Lung obtained the surrender of the Miaotsz chief by promising to spare his life, but this promise was afterward treacherously disregarded. The men of the Miaotsz garrison were banished to Il, where they were forced to labor as military convicts for the rest of their lives.

**Other Wars
During the Reign
of Ch'ien Lung.**

These successes roused in the Emperor the lust of conquest, and after peace had been secured within the Empire, wars were waged with neighbouring countries and tribes.

One of the most important was that with the Gurkhas,¹ who in 1790 had left their home in the hills of Nepaul, crossed the Himalayás, and made a marauding expedition into Thibet. The causes leading up to this conflict were briefly as

follows. In 1780 the Dalai Lama,¹ the chief priest of the Thibetan branch of the Buddhist religion, died while on a visit to the Monasteries in Peking. His property and treasures were appropriated by a brother, who succeeded him as Dalai Lama. When he refused to give any share of the inheritance to a younger brother, the latter invited the Gurkhas into the country to assist in gaining his rights. These hardy warriors, tempted by the chance of plunder, were only too willing to cross the frontiers. The Chinese garrison on the borders of Thibet were utterly unable to resist their attacks, and in order to buy them off offered a bribe on behalf of the Thibetans of 10,500 ounces of gold to be paid annually by the abbots of the monasteries. At the same time the Chinese general sent a misleading report to Peking stating that the Gurkhas had tendered their submission to the throne. When the time for the payment to the Gurkhas arrived, the Chinese tried to put them off with further promises, until finally the patience of the invaders became exhausted, and in order to enrich themselves they attacked and sacked the wealthy town of Tashilumbo.²

The Dalai Lama then appealed to the Emperor of China for help, and the latter, hearing for the first time the true state of affairs, at once commanded the Gurkhas to be driven out of Thibet, and their territory invaded. A large Chinese army was sent into Thibet for this purpose, and the Gurkhas were compelled to retreat. They were pursued by the Chinese to within striking distance of their Capital, and were forced to sue for peace. According to the terms arranged, the Gurkhas acknowledged the sovereignty of China, and agreed to send a mission every five years from Nepaul through Thibet to Peking, carrying tribute to the Chinese Emperor.

**Intercourse
between China
and England.**

Commercial intercourse between China and England had from the very start been on an unsatisfactory basis to the English, and many attempts were made on the part of the latter to gain larger advantages.

As far back as the reign of queen Elizabeth, in whose time the first charter was granted to the East India Company (1601), an

expedition was sent out under John Midenhall to open trade relations, but did not meet with much success. Later, Charles I. granted a charter to a body of English merchants to form a company to promote commerce with China, and Captain Weddell, acting on this permission, sailed for the East with a small fleet, arriving at Macao in 1635. The Portuguese, fearing commercial rivalry, placed every obstacle in the way of the English, and prevented their obtaining a foothold on the Island, and consequently the English captain decided to proceed to Canton. When the fleet was passing the Bogue Forts,¹ on the way up the Canton River, a Chinese battery suddenly opened fire. The English ships retaliated, and after silencing the guns of the battery, landed a force, took possession of the forts, and hoisted the British colours. This step induced the Chinese to grant the right to trade, and a short time afterwards, a trading post was established outside the walls of Canton. The Chinese authorities, however, placed restrictions upon foreign trade by charging excessive export and import duties. This policy of strangling trade enriched the local officials who collected the tariff duties, and consequently was popular with them. The main purpose was to hinder imports, for the Chinese argued that the importation of foreign goods caused an outflow of silver, and so impoverished their country.

In 1759, Mr. Flint, another Englishman, attempted to open commercial relations at Ningpo, and failing in this, sailed in a native junk to Tientsin for the purpose of presenting a memorial to the Emperor, asking for increased trading privileges. On his arrival at Tientsin, the authorities immediately sent him back to Canton, informing him that he was to wait there until the answer from the Emperor had been received. After waiting at Canton for some time, he was summoned to the Viceroy's Yamên to receive the Emperor's answer. There an attempt was made to force him to do homage on his knees according to the Chinese custom, but this he vigorously resisted. Subsequently, he was sent to Macao, and thence, at the request of the Chinese officials, to England, as the attempt he had made to force an entrance into China was considered an unpardonable offence.

At about the same time, an English gunner was seized and put to death by the Chinese for having caused the death of a Chinese, by firing a salute from a gun from which, through oversight, the ball had not been removed. Innumerable causes of friction occurred throughout the whole of this period, and led to much mutual misunderstanding

**Lord
Macartney's
Visit to Peking
(A.D. 1795).**

In order to bring about more amicable relations between the two countries Lord Macartney was sent out in 1795, in the reign of George III of England, to visit the Emperor in Peking. He took with him a large number of presents as tokens of the King of England's goodwill towards the Emperor of China. When he arrived in China, he was received with much honor, but, the vessel upon which he was conveyed to Tientsin contained on its flag the inscription "a tribute bearer from the country of England." From Tientsin he proceeded to Peking, and on the route a discussion broke out between the Chinese mandarins and himself as to whether he would perform the "k'ow-tow" before the Emperor. This he firmly refused to do unless a Chinese magistrate of equal rank with himself made the same obeisance before a portrait of George III. Finally, the performance of this ceremony was waived, and Lord Macartney was permitted to have two interviews with the Emperor Ch'ien Lung, not however at Peking, but in the gardens of the Palace at Jehol.¹ As a result of the visit, permission was granted the English to trade at Canton so long as they were obedient to the local officials. It is significant to note, as a proof of the ignorance of the Chinese at that time of the strength of foreign nations, that Lord Macartney was received and treated as an envoy from a tributary state.

**The Death of
Ch'ien Lung
(A.D. 1799).
Extent of the
Empire.**

In 1796, three years before his death, Ch'ien Lung abdicated in favour of his son Chia Ch'ing.² He had reigned for sixty years, and had brought the Dynasty to the summit of its glory. From the steppes of Mongolia on the North to Cochin-China on the South, and from Formosa on the East to Nepal on the West, the Chinese armies had everywhere been

victorious. Upwards of 400,000,000 people acknowledged the rule of the Great Emperor.

**The Reign of Chia
Ch'ing
(A.D. 1796-1821).**

Chia Ch'ing was equal neither in character nor ability to his father, and was utterly incapable of guiding the ship of state through the stormy period about to follow. As a lad he had been fond of literary pursuits, but as he grew older this taste gave place to a desire for amusement and fondness for actors and theatrical exhibitions. During his reign the Ch'ing Dynasty entered on its period of decline.

**The Rise of
Secret Societies
(A.D. 1796).**

The leaders of the "White Lotus Society," taking advantage of the consternation caused by the appearance of a comet in the skies, raised the standard of revolt in the Provinces of Hupeh, Honan, Shensi, Kansu, and Szechwan. The main object of this Society was the extermination of the Ch'ing Dynasty, and the restoration of the Ming. During the time of disorder, two attempts were made to assassinate the Emperor, one in the streets of Peking, and the other in his private apartments in the Palace. In the second instance, the Emperor's life was saved by the bravery of his second son Mienning,¹ who with his own hand killed two of the assailants. The rebellion was finally suppressed but not until it had cost an enormous number of lives and a large sum of money.

**Foreign
Embassies to the
Court of Peking
(A.D. 1816).**

As we have already noted, the commerce between China and England was much hampered by the lack of a good understanding between the two nations. The Chinese felt they had further cause for resentment against the English because the latter on two occasions, in 1802 and 1813, had taken forcible possession of Macao, in order to keep it from falling into the hands of the French during the Napoleonic wars.

Finally, in consequence of the complications arising between the English merchants at Canton, and the Chinese authorities, the English Government determined to dispatch another special embassy to Peking to renew the negotiations begun by Lord

Macartney, and to arrange a more satisfactory method of carrying on trade. In 1816, Lord Amherst was appointed for this important mission. After arriving at Tientsin, he was confronted with the same problem as had been raised at the visit of Lord Macartney, that is, the question of the performance of the "k'ow-tow," and he maintained on the point the same attitude as his predecessor. From Tientsin he proceeded to Tungechow under the convoy of Duke Ho.¹ Soon after his arrival at this place, he was informed that word had come from the Emperor that he was to come on immediately to Peking, where he would be received at an audience in the Yuan-ming-yuan Gardens' at the Summer Palace, just outside the Capital. The cavalcade started at five o'clock in the evening, travelled all night, and finally arrived at its destination at daybreak. Here Lord Amherst was subjected to much inconvenience, owing to the curiosity of the spectators who had gathered to see the strange foreigner. To increase his discomfort, Duke Ho appeared with a message that the Emperor desired to see him at once. Lord Amherst pleaded fatigue, and the non-arrival of his baggage, containing his Court costume, and begged to have the audience postponed. This impolitic request roused the anger of the Emperor, who issued a peremptory order that the English Ambassador should return to Tungechow without receiving an audience, and thence should proceed to Canton. Thus the mission came to a disastrous and humiliating conclusion.

Previous to Lord Amherst's embassy in 1805, the Russian Count Goloyken had travelled overland to Peking. He was met at the pass in the Great Wall by emissaries from the Emperor, and was told that it was useless for him to advance further unless he was willing to perform the "k'ow-tow," and thus he was obliged to return across Siberia without accomplishing anything.

**The Accession
of Tao Kuang²
(A.D. 1821-1851).**

In 1820, upon the death of his father, Tao Kuang succeeded to the throne. In character he was much superior to his predecessor, and at once took steps to rid the Court of the numerous actors and mountebanks. He paid close attention to the affairs

of state, and although by nature quiet and retiring, yet at critical moments manifested much determination of purpose. He maintained, however, the same attitude toward foreigners as the previous Emperors.

During the first part of his reign, he was occupied in securing peace at home, for troubles had broken out on the western frontiers in Kashgar, and disorder had made its appearance in Formosa. These uprisings were finally quelled, but not until much effort had been expended.

The beginning of Protestant Missions. Robert Morrison, the first Protestant Missionary to China, arrived at Canton, September 7th, 1807. He became official translator of the East India Company in 1809. By his literary work, especially by preparing a Dictionary of the Chinese language and by a translation of the Bible into Chinese, he paved the way for the work of the missionaries who followed him.

CHAPTER XVIII.

The First War between China and Great Britain (A.D. 1840-1843).**The Appointment of Lord Napier as Representative of the English Government in China.**

When the charter of the East India Company¹ expired in April 1834, the English Government decided to assume control of the commerce with China. Hitherto all commercial transactions at Canton had been carried on between the representative of the British merchants, or Taipan,² on the one hand, and a committee of native merchants, known as the Cohong³ on the other. The two principal Chinese trade authorities for foreign commerce in Canton were the Viceroy of the Two Kwang Provinces, Kwangtung and Kwangsi, and the Hoppo, an independent commissioner appointed from Peking as superintendent of the foreign customs⁴

Lord Napier was chosen as the first representative of the British Crown. His instructions ran as follows "Your Lordship will announce your arrival at Canton by letters to the Viceroy. In addition to fostering and protecting trade at Canton, it will be one of your principal objects to ascertain whether it may not be practicable to extend the trade to other parts of the Chinese dominions. It is obvious that, with a view to the attainment of this object, the establishment of direct communications with the Court of Peking would be most desirable."

Dispute between the Chinese Authorities and Lord Napier.

Lord Napier was never able to carry out these instructions. Upon his arrival at Canton the local authorities refused to have any dealings with him, giving as their reason that they preferred to carry on commercial relations as

heretofore, and were unwilling to enter into any *diplomatic* relations with outside nations. They understood that a King's representative would stand on an entirely different footing from a superintendent of trade, and accordingly declined to receive him. A still further reason for the Chinese disliking the new *modus vivendi* was because it would necessitate the English representative dealing with the Viceroy directly instead of through the Cohong.

Lord Napier found himself in an awkward position. He made frequent attempts to present the letters from his government to the Chinese authorities, but in every instance received a rebuff. His insistence upon residing at the foreign factories at Canton led to the Chinese placing an embargo upon all foreign trade, and Lord Napier and his countrymen found themselves virtually prisoners in the foreign settlement. Although he protested vigorously against the restriction of trade, and of the liberties of his countrymen, it was all to no purpose. There was no common standing ground between the two parties in the dispute. The Chinese, accustomed to regard themselves as superior to all other nations, could see no reason why they should deal on terms of equality with the representative of the British Empire, and Lord Napier on his part could see no reason why his demands should not be granted, as he was asking no more than any country in Europe would readily concede.

Finally, as relations became more strained, two British men-of-war were ordered up to protect the foreign factories outside of Canton. Shortly after the frigates had anchored in a position from which they could secure the safety of the lives and property of the English, Lord Napier, owing to a breakdown in health, caused by constant anxiety, was forced to retire to Macao, and there await further instructions from home. After reaching Macao, he sank rapidly, and died on October 11th, 1834.

Upon Lord Napier's retirement, the Chinese, believing they had succeeded in their contention that trade was to be carried on in the old way, removed all restrictions to commerce, and for a while peaceful relations with the English merchants were resumed.

**The Appointment
of Captain
Charles Elliot
(A.D. 1836).**

In 1836, Captain Elliot was commissioned to take up the work of Lord Napier. According to the instructions from his home government, he was to communicate with the authorities directly and not through the Cohong, and was not to head his communications with the Chinese character "p'in,"¹ meaning petition, which implied that what was asked for was petitioned by an inferior from a superior. At the same time, he was admonished to be conciliatory in manner.

Upon arrival at Canton, he was confronted with the same difficulties as had stood in the way of Lord Napier. Captain Elliot lacked the decision of character of his predecessor, and yielded to the demand that his communication should be presented to the Chinese authorities through the Chinese Cohong. His compliance with this request, however, did not make his path any smoother, and matters soon came to such a deadlock between the Chinese and the English, that he was obliged to retire, as Lord Napier had done, to Macao.

**.The Opium
Question.**

In the commerce between China and foreign countries the Chinese saw the increase in the import of opium, and the consequent export of silver. This caused great anxiety to the Chinese authorities, who, as we have already said, argued that foreign trade was impoverishing their country. The principal article imported into the country was opium, and so, apart from all moral considerations, and upon purely financial grounds, the opinion was growing that a stop must be put to the influx of the drug. Furthermore, with the growth of the opium habit its evil effects were making themselves apparent, and many of the Chinese officials opposed its importation principally on the grounds that it was doing serious harm to the people of China. Previous to this, an edict had been put forth against opium smoking. In 1796 and 1800 edicts prohibiting the import had been issued.

At Canton the trade in opium was repeatedly declared to be illegal, but no strenuous effort for suppression was made and it was well known that the Viceroy and the Hoppo openly connived

at it, and took part in it to the extent of exacting a tax. Smuggling went on all along the coast, and many of the leading officials were addicted to the opium habit.

At Peking the question of legalizing or prohibiting the trade was warmly debated. The Empress, with her party, was in favor of legalizing it, and of thus obtaining an increased revenue, while the Emperor advocated its entire suppression. The latter policy finally prevailed, and it was determined to exterminate the trade entirely, using force if necessary.

**The Appointment
of Commissioner
Lin (A.D. 1839).**

The Imperial Commissioner, Lin Tsê-hsu,¹ was appointed with full powers, and sent to Canton for the purpose of putting an end to this traffic. He arrived at his post on March 10th, 1839. He was a man of energy and determination, and it soon became apparent that an earnest effort was about to be put forth to exterminate the opium trade. Commissioner Lin was entirely sincere in his belief that opium was demoralising the Chinese people, and is rightly considered by his countrymen as one of China's real patriots. He was also a man of conservative spirit, and utterly opposed to all foreign trade, considering it to be injurious to his country. Shortly after Commissioner Lin's arrival, Captain Elliot returned to Canton from Macao in the hope of being able to enter into negotiations on behalf of his countrymen. He found himself and all the foreigners shut up in the factories outside of Canton, as the Chinese had cut off all communication with the outside world from the land side, and had taken steps to prevent all foreign vessels from leaving their anchorage.

Commissioner Lin shortly after his arrival at Canton demanded that all opium in the possession of foreign merchants should be delivered up on the ground that it was contraband. In accordance with this request, 20,291 chests of opium were handed over to the Chinese authorities, all of which was completely destroyed.

The ready compliance of Captain Elliot with the Commissioner's demand for the handing over of the opium led to a belief that he would yield to still further demands, and accordingly the

attempt was made to enforce the regulation that foreigners guilty of crime must submit to Chinese penal legislation, including capital punishment. A case in point arose after a disturbance made on shore by some foreign sailors, in which a Chinese was killed. The Commissioner demanded from Captain Elliot the surrender for execution of the alleged English murderer. Upon Captain Elliot's protesting that it was impossible for him to discover the criminal among a large number of sailors of different nationalities who had been granted leave to go on shore, and who had taken part in the rioting, Commissioner Lin responded by issuing an ultimatum giving ten days for the surrender of the murderer, and threatening that if he was not handed over in that time the British community outside of Canton would be attacked. Thereupon the foreigners living in the factories were obliged to flee to Macao.

This demand of Commissioner Lin's was a natural one from the Chinese standpoint, for in all their dealings with foreigners they regarded themselves as having the superior civilization. It was just as natural, however, for the foreigners to resist the demand, for they knew that many of the Chinese forms of punishment were barbarous and that foreigners would have little hope of a fair trial if handed over to the mercies of a Chinese court.

The tension had now become so great that a collision was inevitable. The Chinese began to make preparations for war, and after the arrival of two British ships, a naval engagement was fought at Chuan-pi in which a number of Chinese junks were destroyed and sunk.

**The Cause of
the War.**

Before giving a brief account of the war it will be well to state clearly its real cause. It is to be regretted perhaps, that the war is generally known as the Opium War, for although the destruction of the opium was made by the British Government a *casus belli*, yet, apart from the opium traffic, there were causes leading inevitably to an open rupture between the two nations.

The British claimed that their object in going to war was to get reparation for insults to traders, to exact compensation for

the losses their merchants had sustained, and to obtain security for foreign residents in China; but even this does not state the real question at issue. The first war was but the beginning of a struggle between the extreme East and the West, the East refusing to treat on terms of equality, diplomatically or commercially, with Western nations, and the West insisting on its right to be so treated. All attempts at peaceful negotiations had failed, and the only resource left seemed to be the appeal to war. The forcing of the opium trade on China cannot be justified on any grounds, but even if there had been no opium question, sooner or later, a rupture between China and the West must have occurred.

**The Progress of
the War.**

The operations of the war lasted about three years, from 1840-1843. During the spring of 1840, military and naval forces, equipped in England and India, assembled on the coast of China. Among the ships sent out were several small light draft iron steamers, the most famous of which was the *Nemesis*. As these craft drew but little water, they were most serviceable to the English in the river engagements around Canton. The blockade of the Canton River was declared on the 28th of June 1840 by Commodore Sir Gordon Bremer.

A few days later the command of the fleet was assumed by Rear-Admiral the Hon. George Elliot, who was appointed joint plenipotentiary with Captain Charles Elliot. An attempt was made by the English to enter into negotiations with the Imperial Government through other channels than those at Canton. A frigate was despatched to Amoy, but the local officials refused to receive a letter from the British Admiral, and ordered an attack on the boat bringing it to shore. In retaliation the frigate opened fire on the Chinese batteries and war junks, and then returned to Hongkong.

**The English fleet
proceeds
Northward.**

At about the same time the English made a successful attack on Tanghai,¹ the chief town in the Chusan Archipelago, off Ningpo, and an attempt was made to deliver the letter from the

English Government to the authorities at Peking by way of Ningpo, but this also proved a failure. Next, Hangchow Bay and the mouth of the Yangtse were blockaded by the British fleet, and some vessels proceeded Northward to the mouth of the Peiho. This last demonstration caused the Chinese authorities much consternation as it brought the enemy within striking distance of the Capital, and the Court was induced to send an official named Kishen¹ to parley with Captain Elliot, and to receive the letter from the British Government. The first object of Kishen, an able diplomat, was to induce the foreign forces to withdraw, and this he succeeded in doing by promising to enter into negotiations at Canton. The foreign vessels accordingly withdrew to Chusan.

**Hostilities
around Canton
and proposals
of peace.**

In the meantime, Commissioner Lin had been strengthening the fortifications of Canton and preparing to defend the city. A Chinese army which had been collected in the neighborhood of Macao was attacked, and dispersed by a small British force, and in consequence Lin was recalled to Peking in disgrace, and Kishen was appointed Commissioner in his place. Admiral Elliot being invalided, Captain Elliot was left for a time sole plenipotentiary representing the British Government. In the negotiations that followed, but little was accomplished, and finally Sir Gordon Bremer, who in the meantime had been appointed joint plenipotentiary with Captain Elliot, assumed the offensive and attacked the outer forts of the Canton River. While he was preparing to assault the inner forts, the Chinese asked for a truce, and negotiations were resumed between Kishen and Captain Elliot at Macao. As the result of the conference, it was agreed that Hongkong should be ceded to the British, that the Chinese should pay an indemnity of \$6,000,000, that direct official intercourse on terms of equality should be granted to the English, and that trade should be resumed within ten days. These terms of peace were forwarded to Peking, but were indignantly rejected by the war party at the Capital. Kishen was degraded, and Chinese troops were ordered to proceed to Canton and Chusan to drive out the invaders.

The terms of peace having been refused, Captain Elliot put the matter into Commodore Bremer's hands, and that officer once more captured the Bogue Forts at the mouth of the Canton River. Then followed in quick succession a medley of peace and war. At times there were hostilities, but these were often suspended by truces so that trade might be carried on. Captain Elliot seems always to have been disinclined to push the Chinese to extremities. The Chinese made good use of these lulls in the storm to further their preparations for the defence of Canton, and began to mass troops in the neighborhood of the city.

**Renewal of
the War.**

On May 21st, the signal for the renewal of the war was given by the floating down on the falling tide of a number of Chinese fire rafts for the purpose of destroying the British ships lying at anchor. This scheme failed to accomplish its object, some of the rafts getting aground, and setting fire to the village huts along the shore. The British retaliated by capturing the inner forts, and by destroying a fleet of war junks.

At this stage, the Chinese demolished and pillaged the British factories outside of Canton.

**The first attack
on Canton.**

The burning of the factories incited the British to make an attack on the city of Canton, and on May 26th the heights at the rear of the city were taken. Just before the assault, Captain Elliot agreed to a truce to discuss the conditions on which the British forces would retire from Canton. It was arranged that the Chinese and Manchu troops, of whom there were some 45,000, should evacuate the city, and that the authorities should pay an indemnity of \$6,000,000. In return the British were to restore the Chinese forts, with the proviso that the forts below Whampoa¹ were not to be re-armed until the final conclusion of peace.

Neither the Chinese nor the British Government was pleased with this arrangement. Captain Elliot was recalled, and Sir Henry Pottinger was appointed plenipotentiary in his place, and Vice-Admiral Sir William Parker was given command of the British fleet.

**The War carried
to the North.**

Sir Henry Pottinger had been instructed not to enter into negotiations with the Provincial authorities, but to treat directly with the Imperial Government. Upon his arrival in China, he determined to carry the war to the North. Amoy, Chünhai,¹ Chapu,² Ningpo, Woosung,³ and Shanghai were taken in quick succession. At the Woosung forts, located at the entrance to the river upon which Shanghai is situated, the Chinese General made a brave but fruitless resistance. The Chinese defence of all these places was far from contemptible, but failed, owing to the antiquity of their methods of warfare and the inefficiency of their weapons.

The British fleet proceeded up the Yangtsze River, and bombarded Chinkiang, an important city at the junction of the Yangtsze with the Grand Canal. Although the place was defended with courage by the Manchu garrison, after a severe struggle, in which many Chinese were killed, it was finally taken by the British. The low state of patriotism in China at that day was evidenced by the fact that while the bombardment of Chinkiang was in progress, the Chinese officials of Ithing,⁴ a city on the opposite side of the river, having learnt that there was no intention on the part of the British to attack their city, vied with one another in showing hospitality and courtesy to the invaders.

After taking Chinkiang, an advance was made on Nanking, at which place the expedition arrived on August 9th, 1842. The occupation of the Yangtsze compelled the Chinese to sue for the cessation of hostilities, inasmuch as it seriously threatened the Imperial treasury by putting a check to the tribute supplies carried to the Capital by way of the Yangtsze, and the Grand Canal. When this strategic centre of the Empire was reached, the Chinese at last accepted the inevitable, and appointed Commissioners to treat for terms of peace with Sir Henry Pottinger. The two Imperial Commissioners were men of the highest rank, Ilipu⁵ and Ki-ying⁶ by name, both being Manchus.

**The Treaty of
Nanking (August
29th, 1842).**

The first treaty between China and Great Britain, known as the Treaty of Nanking, was concluded on August 29th, 1842.

Its principal provisions are as follows:—

1. There was to be lasting peace between the two nations.
2. Canton, Amoy, Foochow, Ningpo, and Shanghai were to be opened to foreign trade as Treaty Ports.
3. The Island of Hongkong was to be ceded to Great Britain.
- 4—7 An indemnity of \$21,000,000 was to be paid, \$6,000,000 as the value of the opium destroyed, \$3,000,000 on account of debts due to British subjects for the destruction of their property, and \$12,000,000 for the expenses of the war.
- 8 All British prisoners were to be released.
9. The Emperor was to grant full amnesty to all of his subjects who had helped the enemy.
10. Fair tariff rates were to be imposed at the Treaty Ports.
11. Official correspondence was to be conducted on equal terms.
12. The places held by the British were to be evacuated as the indemnity was paid.

The Treaty was ratified at Peking as soon as it was forwarded, and was brought to Hongkong by Ki-ying in June 1843

Sir Henry Pottinger was made first Governor of Hongkong by the British Government, and, after long negotiations, arranged with the Chinese Plenipotentiaries regulations for the carrying on of the foreign trade at the Treaty Ports.

The fruits of England's victories were shared by other nations. A short time after the conclusion of the Treaty of Nanking, a representative of the United States, the Hon. Caleb Cushing, and later a French Minister appeared at Canton, and negotiated treaties similar to the one made between Great Britain and China.

**Condition of affairs
after the close
of the War.**

Although the war was at an end, and the demands of the English had been granted, intercourse between China and foreign nations did not by any means become a smooth and easy matter. The people of China were far from acquiescing quietly in what their Government had done, and liked the foreigners no better than before.

Ki-ying, the High Commissioner, although a man of good faith, regarded the treaty as one that had been wrested by force from the Chinese Government, and the Chinese officials generally looked forward to the time when they might free themselves from this new foreign incubus

**Riots around
Canton.**

At Canton, where the people had always been unusually anti-foreign, difficulties constantly arose between the Chinese and the English, and within three months after the signing of the Treaty, placards were posted about the villages inciting the populace to violence, and an organized attack on the British factories was made, resulting in the burning of the buildings. The Chinese authorities, when asked to suppress these disturbances, declared that they were powerless before the mob and dared not coerce the Canton populace. For similar reasons, they urged the English not to insist upon carrying out the articles of the treaty allowing them free access to Canton, prophesying a serious uprising if they should attempt to do so.

**Negotiations
between Ki-yins
and Sir John
Davis.**

Matters came to a crisis in 1847, when an English party of six narrowly escaped being murdered by a Chinese mob at Fatshan,¹ a town near Canton. At this time, Lord Palmerston had become chief in the British Foreign Office, and he instructed Sir John Davis, who had succeeded Sir Henry Pottinger as Governor of Hongkong, to take steps for the purpose of putting an end to these disturbances and for the rigid carrying out of the Treaty. Thereupon Sir John Davis requested the English Admiral and General in command at Hongkong to proceed to the seat of the late disturbances and to make reprisals on the spot. The British Commander captured the Bogue Forts, and took up a strong offensive position opposite the walls of Canton.

Ki-ying, alarmed at the aspect affairs had assumed, entered into negotiations with Sir John Davis, over whom he succeeded in gaining a great diplomatic victory, as in return for the assurance that no further trouble should be allowed to arise, he persuaded the English to defer for another two years the date in the article giving them free entry into Canton.

A few months later six young Englishmen were caught by a mob at Hwangchuk, three miles from Canton, and cruelly put to death. The Viceroy of Canton at that time was Yeh Ming-shên,¹ a man avowedly anti-foreign, and there can be but little doubt that the people, taking their cue from him, had been encouraged to commit this act of violence.

The High Commissioner, Ki-ying, being a far more sagacious man, promptly ordered the capture and decapitation of the leaders of the riot, and thus averted for a short time a collision between the two nations.

**The new
Treaty Ports.**

Of the new Treaty Ports, Shanghai at first was the only one of any importance as regards foreign trade. For some time the relations between the people of Shanghai and the foreigners were quite amicable. In 1848 a serious disturbance arose at a place called Tsingpu.² A party of three missionaries while visiting the town were attacked by some of the discharged crews of the government grain junks, and came very near losing their lives. The British Consul at Shanghai, Mr. Alcock, demanded reparation from the Chinese authorities, and upon their delaying to grant this, ordered the commander of a British man-of-war at Woosung to blockade the harbor, and prevent the grain junks from carrying tribute rice to Peking, and the war junks from weighing anchor and leaving their moorings. The commander of H.M.S. Childers detained 1,400 rice junks in the harbor at Woosung, and in this way pressure was brought to bear on the Taotai of Shanghai to settle the dispute. At the same time, the British Vice-Consul was dispatched on H.M.S. Espiegle to Nanking to interview the Viceroy of Kiangnan (having jurisdiction over the Provinces of Kiangsu, Kiangsi, and Anhwei), and to lay before him a formal complaint. Upon representation, the matter was promptly settled. Full redress was ordered, and the culprits were seized and punished. After this, the former peaceable relations between the people of Shanghai, and the foreigners were resumed.

CHAPTER XIX.

The First Stage of the T'ai-ping Rebellion (A.D. 1850-1860).

**Accession
of the Emperor
Hsien Fêng¹
(A.D. 1851).**

Tao Kuang was succeeded by his fourth son, known from the title of his reign as Hsien Fêng. This young prince was only nineteen years of age when he came to the throne, and owing to inexperience, and lack of ability was ill prepared to cope with the difficult problems which soon confronted him. Like his father, he was politically conservative, and thought that the best way to advance the prosperity of China was to resist all attempts on the part of foreigners to gain an entrance into the Empire. Ki-ying, who had been instrumental in keeping peace between the Chinese and the English in the South, was recalled to Peking, in disgrace, and replaced by a man of more conservative type.

**Hung
Hsiu-ch'uan,²
the originator
of the T'ai-ping
Rebellion.**

Hung Hsiu-ch'uan, who afterward became the leader of the T'ai-ping Rebellion, was born in 1813 in a village near Canton. He was of lowly origin, being the son of a Hakka*³ farmer. As a youth he devoted himself to study, being ambitious to obtain the coveted degree of Bachelor of Arts at the Literary Examinations. He made three attempts to gain this honor, but in each was unsuccessful. This failure preyed so much upon his mind, that his health was affected and for a time his life was despaired of. During his illness, he had a dream in which he saw the Almighty enter his room, place a sword in his hand, and command him to begin a crusade for the

* Hakka means stranger, and is the name given to those settlers in the Kwangtung Province who came into it from the North.

extermination of the worship of devils. He was conveyed to the Palace of the Almighty, washed in a river, and had his heart taken out and replaced by a new one.

After his recovery he studied some Christian tracts which had fallen into his hands when he was on a visit to Canton for the purpose of passing the examinations, and from the perusal of these he became convinced that he had discovered the meaning of his dream. He applied for baptism, but although for a time under Christian instruction, was never formally admitted into the Church. He converted his own household to his views, and then his neighbors, and after a while a band of followers gathered about him, and an association was formed called the "Shang Ti Hui"¹ that is, the society for the worship of the Almighty.

The new movement met with marked success in the Province of Kwangsi, where, with iconoclastic zeal, idols were destroyed and temples razed to the ground. Such was the beginning of the T'ai ping movement. In its earlier stages, it much resembled the religious crusade of the Prophet Mahomet.

It was not in its inception a political rising, but was later compelled from force of circumstances to assume a hostile attitude towards the government. The Imperial Government, fearing the outbreak of a revolution, sent two commissioners named Ta-hungah² and Saishangah,³ to suppress the movement, and this display of force incited the followers of Hung to declare open rebellion, and to take up the cry, "Exterminate the Manchus."⁴

**The First
Successes of the
Rebels.**

In 1850, the rebels seized and fortified the market town of Liuchow⁵ in Kwangsi, and shortly afterward the towns, Taitsun,⁶ Yungan⁷ and Nanning⁸ fell into their hands. As nothing succeeds like success, the consequence of these victories was to draw a large number of followers to the rebel standard, many of whom were inspired by motives of plunder. The rebellion, when it assumed such serious proportions, caused great alarm in Canton, and the inhabitants, fearing an attack on their city, made active preparations for resisting a siege.

The rebellion is known in history as the T'ai ping,¹ the name being derived from the Chinese characters meaning "Great Peace," signifying that the reign of peace was about to be established, but the rebels were called by their countrymen the "Chang-mao,"² that is "the long-haired ones," on account of their allowing their hair to grow long, and of abandoning the custom of shaving the front parts of their heads.

**The Spread
of the Rebellion
to the
Yangtse Valley
(A.D. 1852).**

The lack of a supply of food rendered it impossible for the rebels to subsist long in the Province of Kwangsi, and accordingly their leader Hung decided to advance to the North. He led his followers across the Northern frontiers of Kwangtung into Hunan, and striking the Hsiang River³ followed its course, capturing all the cities on its banks. At Changsha, the capital of the Province, he met with his first serious check. The city was defended by Tsêng Kuo-fan,⁴ the Governor of the Province, and under him held out very bravely. After spending eighty days in the futile attempt to take it, Hung, becoming discouraged, abandoned the siege, and marched on to the Yangtse River. He crossed the T'ungting Lake,⁵ and entering the Yangtse valley passed down the river until he came to Hankow, Hanyang, and Wuchang. These cities were taken by storm, and shortly afterwards Anking and Kuukiang suffered the same fate. In March 1853, the City of Nanking was captured, and was selected as the site of the Capital of the new Dynasty. All along the Yangtse, the Imperial troops seem to have been utterly demoralized, and were unable to offer any vigorous resistance to the advance of the rebels. When Nanking was captured, a general massacre of the Manchu garrison, and their families ensued, and women and children as well as men were put to death in the most barbarous manner. Out of 20,000 Manchus only 100 survived.

**The Rebels in
Nanking.**

Shortly after establishing his Capital, Hung, who now claimed to be the brother of Christ, assumed the title of "Heavenly King,"⁶ and published a book of Celestial Decrees, purporting to be revelations from God.

In these Decrees, God is spoken of as the Heavenly Father, and Christ as the Celestial Brother.

At the time of the taking of Nanking, the number of rebels had grown to 80,000 and was constantly on the increase. A Government was established. Hung was proclaimed Emperor of China, and his Dynasty was named the T'ai-ping. Four Assistant "Wangs,"¹ or Kings, were appointed to help rule the Empire, and were called the Kings of the North, South, East, and West.

Hung, himself, in his Capital soon sank into obscurity, and instead of continuing to be the energetic leader gave himself up to unbridled license, surrounding himself with a large harem, and leaving the direction of affairs in the hands of his subordinates.

He was visited at his Court by some foreigners, among whom were several missionaries, who at first had been inclined to favor the movement, and to look upon it as a religious crusade, promising much for the future of China. These sanguine expectations were rudely dispelled when they discovered the reign of disorder in Nanking, and the fanaticism of those enlisted in the rebellion.

**The Advance
on Peking
(A.D. 1853).**

In March 1853, a column of the rebels was dispatched to the North to try an issue with the Imperial forces at the Capital. This detachment failed in an attempt to seize Kaifeng in Honan, and after traversing the Province of Shansi, advanced to Tsinghai,² a place twenty miles distant from Tientsin. An attack on Tientsin by the advance guard was repulsed by the Manchu General Sankolinsin,³ a man who afterwards played an important part in the second war with Great Britain. Disheartened by this failure, the rebels were afraid to press on to Peking, and not waiting for the arrival of a second column, advancing to reinforce them, began their retreat to Nanking. At this juncture, Li Hung-chang⁴ made his first appearance on the stage of history. Actuated by patriotic motives, he raised at his own expense a regiment of militia in Anhwei, and began with this force to harass the rearguard of the rebels. In reward for his services, Tsêng Kuo-fan became his patron, and introduced him to Imperial favor.

Although frustrated in their attempt to take Peking, the rebels for a time controlled the Yangtse valley from Ichang to Yangchow. Gradually, however, the Imperial troops gathered fresh courage, and after repeated struggles, some of the cities on the Yangtse were retaken, and the T'aipings were confined to the narrow strip of country between Nanking and Anking. Both of these cities were closely beleaguered by Imperial armies.

Here, however, we will leave for a time the account of the T'ai-ping Rebellion, and turn our attention to the events transpiring in the South, which brought about the second war between China and Great Britain.

CHAPTER XX.

The Second War between China and Great Britain (A.D. 1856-1860)**Events leading
up to the War.**

As has been stated, there was constant friction between the Cantonese and the English merchants in the South. The Chinese were determined to evade as long as possible the carrying out of that part of the Treaty of Nanking which agreed to the opening of the city of Canton to foreigners. Sir John Davis had arranged with Ki-ying that the city was to be thrown open at the latest on April 6th, 1849, but as that date drew near, the Chinese authorities showed great disinclination to comply with this arrangement, giving as their reason for desiring a further postponement, the fear lest it might lead to a serious uprising of the people in the city, with whom the agreement was very unpopular.

When Sir John Bowring became Governor of Hongkong, he attempted to arrange a meeting with the Imperial Commissioner Yeh within the city walls, but his request for an interview was declined, and Yeh made the counter proposal that the meeting should take place outside the city.

While matters were at this critical stage, Mr. Harry Parkes (afterwards Sir Harry Parkes) was appointed English Consul at Canton. He was a man of indomitable spirit, and from the beginning of his career was bent on forcing the Chinese to yield to the demands of his countrymen. Commissioner Yeh remained firm in his attitude, however, and would not hold any direct communication with the English Consul within the city walls.

**The Case of the
Lorcha "Arrow"
(A.D. 1856).**

The extreme state of tension between the Chinese and the English could not last long without leading to serious difficulties, and in October 1856 an event occurred which precipitated hostilities. The English Government at Hongkong, in order to facilitate the trade of the Chinese colonists of the Island, granted, under certain restrictions, "sailing letters" to Chinese vessels giving them the protection of the English flag. A *lorcha*,¹ that is a vessel with European hull and Chinese rigging, named the "Arrow," registered at Hongkong, commanded by an Irish officer, and flying the English flag, was boarded, while lying at anchor at Whampoa, by Chinese officials, and the flag was hauled down and twelve of the crew carried off to a Chinese man-of-war as prisoners. Upon hearing of this, Mr. Harry Parkes wrote to Commissioner Yeh, demanding an apology for the insult to the flag, and the return of the men to the ship from which they had been taken. These demands were evaded, and gave rise to a long controversy. The Chinese claimed that one of the crew was the father of a well-known pirate whose arrest had long been sought, and also denied that the English flag had been flying when the vessel was boarded. Later, it was further stated that the *lorcha* had no right to be flying the English flag, as her license had expired some months before. These excuses were not allowed by the English, because it was distinctly stated in Article 9 of the Supplementary Treaty of Nanking between China and Great Britain, that all Chinese offenders in the service of the British should be claimed through the British authorities, and also because the expiration of the license could not have been known to the Chinese Authorities at the time of the seizure of the Chinese crew.

Commissioner Yeh finally proposed to send back nine of the men, and to keep the other three, claiming that one of the three was a notorious criminal, and that the other two were important witnesses. He paid no attention to the demand for an apology, as he claimed that no insult to the British flag had taken place. Mr. Harry Parks refused to receive the nine men and insisted

that all should be returned to the vessel from which they had been taken, and that the apology should be made. Commissioner Yeh then consented to the sending back of the twelve men, but not in the manner required; at the same time he demanded that Mr. Parkes should return two of them, but sent no proper officer to assist in conducting the necessary examination of the accused before the British consul. Mr. Parkes refused to settle the matter in this way, and the English made preparations to resort to force.

**The Causes
of the War.**

The case of the "Arrow" is usually cited as the *casus belli* in the Second War between China and Great Britain, and undoubtedly it was the *immediate* cause of the outbreak of hostilities, but at the same time it may be confidently asserted that even if there had been no incident of this character, this second rupture between the two nations was bound sooner or later to have occurred. The stand-points of the contending parties were so different that a collision was inevitable. The Chinese still looked upon the foreigners as beneath them in civilization, and would not treat on terms of equality, and the foreigners considered that the Chinese were resisting demands that they might make of any civilized nation—the right to carry on commerce freely, and to have their official representatives treated with respect. On the part of the Chinese, dense ignorance of the civilization of the West may be pleaded, but in many cases it was ignorance that refused to be enlightened.

There were, in addition to ignorance, other causes leading the Chinese to regard with disfavor the increase of foreign intercourse. For instance, there was the coolie traffic of Macao. Chinese coolies were constantly kidnapped and taken to Macao, and thence sent off on the forced contract system to work in Cuba,¹ Peru,² and California.³ In this nefarious traffic, the Portuguese were the greatest offenders. Another open sore was the continuance of the smuggling of opium into China, although the trade had been declared illegal. It was often carried on by ships of the class to which the "Arrow" belonged, which were

protected by taking out licenses in Hongkong, thus obtaining the privilege of flying the English flag

**The Progress
of the War.**

Sir John Bowring immediately authorized the capture of a native junk by way of reprisal for the insult offered to the British flag, but this act led to no important results. Then Sir Michael Seymour, in command of the British fleet, was ordered to take the Bogue Forts leading to Canton. This was done, and in December of the year 1856, all the fortifications on the Canton River were in the hands of the British, and the city itself was bombarded, a part of the wall seized, and one of the city gates taken. After the yamèn of Commissioner Yeh had been shelled and destroyed, Sir Michael Seymour, with Mr. Harry Parkes, entered the city and visited the ruins of the building. As the British force was insufficient to hold the city for any length of time, it was determined to withdraw, and to await the arrival of 5,000 troops for which the British Government had been petitioned

The Chinese notwithstanding these reverses still remained defiant, and as soon as the British Admiral left Canton hastened to repair the wall, and to prepare for further resistance. Meanwhile a price had been set on the heads of the English by Commissioner Yeh, and in this way the populace became eager for war, and were incited to acts of violence.

The factories outside Canton were burnt to the ground, and several Europeans were carried off and put to death.

At Hongkong "more insidious weapons than steel or shot" were used. Probably at the instigation of some of the Chinese authorities, the head baker of the colony put arsenic in the morning supply of bread in order to poison all the foreigners. The attempt failed, however, owing to an excessive amount of arsenic having been used.

The fact that the English had withdrawn from Canton naturally led the Chinese to believe that victory rested upon their side, and inspired them with increased courage.

Reports of Chinese successes were sent to the Emperor Hsien Fêng, inducing him to allow Commissioner Yeh a free hand in dealing with the troublesome foreigners.

**The
Appointment
of Lord Elgin
(A.D. 1857).**

The British Government, in response to the appeal of Sir Michael Seymour, appointed Lord Elgin as High Commissioner for Great Britain, and transports with 5,000 troops were dispatched to China. Lord Elgin, on his way to China, received news of the outbreak of the Sepoy mutiny in India. While at Singapore, a letter from Lord Canning, Governor-General of India, was received, entreating him to send to India temporarily the forces intended for the war in China. In response to this urgent appeal, Lord Elgin sent out dispatches far and wide, to divert the transports on their way to China, and ordered them to proceed to India. These troops were of great service at a critical juncture in India, and were replaced by a fresh expedition dispatched from England.

**The Naval
Encounters
of 1857.**

Meanwhile a number of minor naval engagements took place between the Chinese and the British. The month of May 1857 was marked by two expeditions, the first under Commodore Elliot to Escape Creek, and the next under Admiral Seymour to Fatshan. "The effect of these operations was the entire destruction of the Chinese fleet of war-junks in the Canton waters."

**The Attack on
Canton.**

The French Government, led partly by the desire of seeking reparation for the massacre of a French missionary in the West of Kwangsi, and partly by the spirit of Imperial aggrandizement which manifested itself during the time of the Emperor, Napoleon III, decided to join with the British in hostilities against China, and Baron Gros was sent out at the head of a French force to act in concert with Lord Elgin.

When the forces of both nations had arrived, an advance was made on Canton. Lord Elgin, at the close of prolonged negotiations with Commissioner Yeh, finally issued an ultimatum on Christmas Day 1857, demanding the evacuation of Canton in forty-eight hours by the Tartar and Chinese garrisons, and threatening to attack the city if the demand were refused. No answer having been returned, the city was assaulted and taken after a brief struggle, and the walls were occupied. A search was made in the city for Commissioner Yeh, who was finally captured in the act of making his escape from one of the yaméns.

The commanders of the allies then decided to send him as an exile to Calcutta, as they believed there could be no peace while he was free to influence the minds of his countrymen, and that he was responsible for the burning of the factories. Yeh up to the time of his death, a year later, resided in a villa in the suburbs of Calcutta.

After the city had been taken, a provisional government was established consisting of the Chinese Governor Píkwei, Mr. Harry Parkes, Colonel Holloway, and a French naval officer named Martineau. They ruled the city for three years, and during that time order was maintained and the people enjoyed security of life and property.

**The Expedition
to the North
(A.D. 1858).**

In the meantime Lord Elgin had addressed a letter to the chief Secretary of State in Peking, proposing that a Chinese Plenipotentiary should be sent to Shanghai to meet with the foreign Plenipotentiaries, for the purpose of discussing terms of peace. The answer, which was addressed not to Lord Elgin but to the Viceroy of the Two Kiang Provinces, rejected the proposal, and appointed the new Viceroy of the Two Kwang Provinces as peace negotiator.

Lord Elgin finding himself foiled in his attempt to enter into direct negotiations with the government at the Capital, determined to carry the war to the North, and the British and French fleets sailed to the mouth of the Peiho. Upon arriving, the Taku Forts were taken after a sharp conflict, and the way was thrown open to Tientsin. Lord Elgin and Baron Gros were followed by the American and Russian Ministers, bent upon making treaties for their respective countries.

**The Treaty of
Tientsin (June
26th, 1858).**

The Chinese now felt obliged to appoint peace commissioners, and Kweiliang¹ and Hwashana² were sent from the Court to confer with the invaders. They adopted a conciliatory attitude, and after some dispute as to whether they had the proper credentials to permit of their acting on behalf of the Emperor, negotiations were begun. Kí-ying, who had taken so prominent a part in the concluding of the Treaty of Nanking and had

formerly conducted negotiations with the foreigners at Canton, volunteered to undertake the difficult task of inducing the foreign forces to retire from the neighborhood of the Capital, being anxious to rehabilitate himself in the favor of the government. As he failed in accomplishing this object, he fell into further disgrace with his Imperial Master, and was condemned to death. In return for his past services, the sentence was mitigated to the extent of his being allowed to commit suicide in place of being executed. Finally, the Treaty of Tientsin was signed on June 26th, 1858. It contained fifty-six articles, the most important of which are the following.—

(1.)—The British and other Governments were to have the right to appoint resident Ministers at the Court of Peking.

(2.)—In addition to the five Ports already open to foreign trade, Newchwang,¹ Chefoo,² Formosa, Swatow,³ and Kiungchow,⁴ in the Island of Hainan, were to become Treaty Ports, and British ships were to be allowed to trade on the Yangtse River

(3.)—Permission was to be granted to foreigners to travel with passports signed by their consuls in the interior of the country.

(4.)—The Christian Religion was to be tolerated.

(5.)—The tariff fixed by the Treaty of Nanking was to be revised. British subjects were to have the option of clearing their goods of all transit duties by the payment of a single charge, to be calculated as nearly as possible at the rate of $2\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. *ad valorem*.

(6.)—The Chinese were to pay the sum of 2,000,000 taels for the losses at Canton, and an equal sum for the expenses of the war.

The revision of the tariff took place at Shanghai and was signed on November 8th, 1858. One important feature of it was the legalization of the opium trade.

The most important article of the Treaty was undoubtedly the one granting the right to appoint Ministers to reside at the Capital, but this was the very one that was not put into operation. The Chinese authorities represented to Lord Elgin that an entry into Peking at that time by foreigners

would be most inexpedient, and would probably result in serious riots. Lord Elgin finally consented to ask his government to waive for the time being the right of the residence of the British Ambassador in Peking, and received as a *quid pro quo* the right to cruise with some of his fleet up the Yangtse as far as Hankow.

**Lord Elgin's
return to the
South.**

After a successful visit to Hankow, Wuchang, and Hanyang, Lord Elgin returned to the South. As there was every indication that the new treaty would not be observed by the people of Canton, and as frequent attacks were made by the Chinese braves on the forces of the Allies, a series of expeditions was undertaken in the neighborhood of Canton for the sake of putting down the disturbances. At this time the West River was explored, and quiet was restored at Canton.

**The Attempt to
exchange the
Ratifications
of the Treaty
(A.D. 1859).**

In the following year it was necessary for the British Government to send an Ambassador to Peking for the purpose of exchanging the ratifications of the Treaty. Mr. Frederick Bruce (afterwards Sir Frederick Bruce,) Lord Elgin's brother, who had acted in the capacity of secretary in the expedition of 1858, was appointed for this purpose, and sailed from England with Queen Victoria's ratification, and his letters of credence as first British Minister to China. Upon his arrival at Shanghai, he was met by Kweiliang and Hwashana, who strove to dissuade him, and the French, American, and Russian Ministers who had joined him, from proceeding to Peking, and to persuade them to exchange the ratifications at Shanghai, representing that it could be done at that city just as well as at the Capital. At this time the Hon. J. E. Ward had been appointed as United States Minister. The foreign Ministers all refused to accede to this request, and based their refusal on the grounds that the original Treaty called for the exchange of the ratifications at the Capital.

Accordingly, the British fleet determined to proceed to Tientsin. Upon arrival off the coast, it was discovered that the Taku Forts¹ had been greatly strengthened, and that the mouth of the Peiho had been blocked by barriers consisting of large stakes bound together with heavy chains.

A proposal was made by the Chinese authorities both to Mr. Ward, the U.S. Minister, and to Admiral Hope, in command of the British fleet, that the Ambassadors should land at Pehtang,¹ ten miles up the coast, and that from that place a Chinese force would escort them overland to Peking. The Foreign Ministers refused to comply with this suggestion on the ground that in this way they would be yielding their right to make a peaceful expedition to the Capital by the usual route, and would put their countries in the position of suppliants of China, and not of those dealing with her on equal terms. It is to be noted that the route proposed by the Chinese was the time-honored road by which the bearers from Annam, Loocho,² and other tributaries of China, travelled.

**Defeat of the
British and
French at Taku.**

During the night of June 23rd, one of the booms was blown up by the British, and on the following morning, Admiral Hope attempted to force the passage with thirteen vessels. The forts immediately opened fire, with the result that two of the British gunboats were sunk, and many officers and men wounded. Then a detachment of marines and sappers was landed to attempt the capture of the forts, but as the men got quagmired in the mud, and were exposed to a withering fire from the forts, they were repulsed and forced to retire. It was during the engagement off the Taku forts that Captain Tatnall, the commander of the American ship, though nominally occupying a position of neutrality in the conflict, commanded his men to help tow some boat loads of British marines to the rescue of the hard pressed British Admiral. He gave as his excuse for this breach of the laws of neutrality, that "blood is thicker than water."

**Ward's visit to
Peking.**

After the engagement, Mr. Ward, the U.S. Minister, proceeded to Pehtang, and was sent forward with a Chinese escort to Peking. When he arrived at the Capital, the old discussion in regard to the "k'ow-tow" was revived. Being treated in a humiliating way, and kept under surveillance, Mr. Ward finally left without being admitted

to the presence of the Emperor, and the ratifications of the American Treaty were exchanged at Pehtang.

The Second Battle at the Mouth of the Peiho (A.D. 1860). The British and French were not long in retaliating for their repulse at Taku. A formidable expedition was equipped both by Great Britain and France, and Lord Elgin and Baron Gros were reappointed as Plenipotentiaries.

The British contingent consisted of 13,000 men, principally Indian troops, and was commanded by Sir Hope Grant. The French had 7,000 men under the command of General Montauban. The naval forces were commanded respectively by Vice-Admiral Sir James Hope, and Admiral Page.

The British fleet assembled at Talienwan,¹ and the French at Chefoo. At first there was considerable discussion between the Allies as to the plan of attack to be adopted, but it was finally decided to take Pehtang first, and then assault the Taku Forts from the rear. These tactics disconcerted the Chinese a good deal as they had not expected an attack from that quarter.

Pehtang was taken without much difficulty, and the Allies marched on to Tangku.² The country had been flooded and entrenchments thrown up to protect the rear of the forts. The Chinese cavalry resisted the advance of the enemy very bravely, but they were no match for the Sikh Lancers. The General Sankolnsin, who some years before had opposed the forces of the T'ai-ping Rebels so successfully in their attack on Tientsin, was in command of the Chinese forces, and his presence did much to inspire them with hopes of victory.

Tangku was taken by the Allies, and then preparations were made for the assault on the Taku Forts. At this time, Hang-fu,³ the Viceroy of Chihli, attempted to enter into negotiations with Lord Elgin, but the latter would come to no terms until reparation had been made by the Chinese for the previous attack on the allied fleet off Taku, the letter and the spirit of the Treaty of Tientsin fulfilled, and an indemnity promised for the cost of the expedition. As no terms could be arranged, the attack on the forts was begun. A vigorous defence was made by the Chinese,

who stood to their guns most manfully, even after a terrible explosion had taken place in one of the forts. A native corps of Cantonese coolies helped the Allies in the work of planting the scaling ladders on the walls of the forts, and seemed to feel no scruples in assisting the foreigners against their own countrymen. After one of the forts on the North bank of the river had been taken, the other Northern fort hoisted the white flag, and the three forts on the Southern bank of the river soon followed its example. This was on August 21st, 1860.

When the forts had been captured, the way to Tientsin lay open, and the obstructions having been removed, the fleet advanced up the river.

At this stage of the proceedings, Kweiliang was commissioned by the Chinese Government to make peace in conjunction with the Viceroy Hang-fu.

Lord Elgin demanded three things (1) an apology for the previous attack on the allied fleet, (2) the ratification and execution of the Tientsin Treaty, and (3) an indemnity for the expenses of the naval and military expeditions. The French made similar demands.

As the Chinese Commissioners did not really possess plenipotentiary powers, and did not dare to comply with all these demands, the allied force began its march on Peking.

**The Advance on
Peking.**

When the expedition had arrived half-way to the Capital, a letter from Tsai, Prince of I,¹ was received, proposing peace, but Lord Elgin refused to treat until he had reached Tungchow. Mr. Wade and Mr. Harry Parkes were sent in advance to Tungchow to negotiate a preliminary convention with the Chinese Commissioners of Peace. They held a conference with Prince Tsai, and it was arranged that the Allies should advance to Changkiawan,² some five miles from Tungchow, and remain there while the foreign Ambassadors proceeded to Peking with a small force. Mr. Parkes returned from Tungchow to the army and reported these arrangements to his superiors, and then in company with another young

Englishman, named Loch, and several other officers, again set out for Tungchow to make final arrangements.

**Capture of
Parkes and Loch.**

After arriving at Tungchow the second time, they perceived a change in the tone of Prince Tsai, who, in the conference held with Parkes, opposed very strenuously the desire of Lord Elgin to present an autograph letter from Queen Victoria to the Emperor at the Capital. While returning to the army, Parkes and Loch discovered that the Chinese had placed an ambuscade of 80,000 men around the proposed camping ground of the Allies at Changkiawan. Parkes immediately sent Loch to report the matter to Sir Hope Grant, and to warn him of his danger, while he himself returned to Tungchow to seek another interview with Prince Tsai, and to demand an explanation of the presence of this large body of Chinese troops. Loch after delivering his message, went to rejoin Parkes at Tungchow with a small escort.

When they tried to make their way back to the British army, they were taken prisoners. They were treated with great indignity, and upon demanding to see Prince Tsai, were sent bound to Tungchow, and thence forwarded to Peking, where at first they were confined with the lowest criminals in the prison of the Board of Punishments. Altogether, twenty-three men belonging to the British army, and thirteen belonging to the French army, fell into the hands of the Chinese.

**Battles of
Changkiawan
and Palikiao.**

In the meantime a battle had been fought at Changkiawan between the Chinese and the Allies. The Chinese evidently had determined to make one more determined stand before yielding to the demands of the foreigners. In the engagement, the Tartar cavalry behaved with much courage, but were finally put to flight by the Sikhs.

Sankolinsin rallied his retreating troops at a place called Palikiao,¹ and a second unsuccessful engagement was fought. The French General, who acted with conspicuous bravery on this occasion, and through whose efforts the Allies won the

victory, was afterwards created by the French Emperor, the Comte de Palikiao.

**Flight of the
Emperor, and
Negotiations with
Prince Kung.¹**

While the Allies were marching on Peking, the Emperor fled to Jehol, and Prince Kung, his brother, was left to arrange terms with the enemy.

When Prince Kung attempted to open negotiations, the Allies refused to treat, laying down as an absolute condition that the foreign prisoners must be returned before there could be any talk of peace.

The French force advanced on the Yuan-ming-yuan Palace, outside of Peking, and took possession of it, Prince Kung fleeing for safety. The Palace was then sacked and looted of its valuable curiosities by both French and British troops. Finally, Prince Kung consented to the return of the prisoners. Parkes and Loch were set free; and eight cavalymen, and one French officer, all who survived the tortures suffered in prison, were released. By way of punishment for the deaths of the other captured prisoners, Lord Elgin and Baron Gros gave orders for the burning of the Summer Palace, and this beautiful group of buildings was ruthlessly committed to the flames. They chose this method of retaliation because they wished to punish the Emperor, and not the people.

**Treaty of
Peking, October
22nd, 1860.**

Although the Court at Jehol was still desirous of continuing the struggle, Prince Kung realized the futility of such a course, and entered into negotiations for peace with Lord Elgin and Baron Gros. A new Treaty was drawn up and signed in the Hall of Ceremonies on October 22nd, 1860, and the Treaty of Tientsin was ratified. The new British Convention demanded (1) that 8,000,000 taels indemnity should be paid, (2) that permission should be given to Chinese subjects to emigrate at will as contract laborers or otherwise, (3) that Kowloon² should be ceded to the British Government and become a part of Hongkong, and (4) that Tientsin should be opened as a treaty port. The French convention con-

cemeteries, lands and buildings previously owned by persecuted native Christians should be restored, and where this was impossible that an indemnity should be paid to the French representative at Peking for transmission to the Christians at the localities concerned. The fulfilment of this article became in the future a great source of irritation to the Chinese, especially as much of the property in question had long ago passed into the hands of those who had acquired it by purchase. In the Chinese draft of the French Treaty another clause was surreptitiously introduced, granting to the missionaries the right to buy land, erect buildings, and to reside in the interior. This clause is not found in the French version of the Treaty, the one which was to be regarded as the authoritative version. Although it was illegal, yet it was often appealed to as granting special privileges to missionaries, and became the basis for further demands. It was never distinctly repudiated by the Chinese authorities, and the right to residence in the interior became confirmed by long usage. Owing to the approach of winter, the allied force after leaving a garrison at Tientsin and the Taku Forts departed for Shanghai.

**The
Coup d'état of
Prince Kung.**

Prince Kung did all in his power to persuade the Emperor Hsien Fêng to return to Peking, but in this he was unsuccessful. Shortly afterward, the health of the Emperor failed, and his eldest son, known from the title of his reign as T'ung Chih,¹ a child of four years, was appointed as heir-apparent. After the death of Hsien Fêng, the Court returned to the Capital. This was a critical moment for Prince Kung, for everything depended upon whether the anti-foreign party of the Court or Prince Kung's party should obtain the control of the Government. Prince Kung managed to come to an arrangement with the two Empresses-Dowager, Tz'ü-an,² the wife of Hsien Fêng, and Tz'ü-Hsi,³ the mother of T'ung Chih, and by a *coup d'état* arrested and put to death the leaders of the anti-foreign party, among whom was Prince Tsai. Prince Kung and the Empresses-Dowager then virtually ruled the Empire.

**The
Establishment of
the Tsung-li
Yamen.¹**

The Hon. Frederick Bruce was left as British Minister, and M. Bouboulon as French Minister at Peking, but owing to want of suitable quarters they did not actually take up their residence at the Capital until the spring of the following year (1861).

In order to facilitate communications with Foreign countries, by Imperial decree, a department of foreign affairs, the Tsung-li Yamên, was at this time created by the Chinese Government. The three original members were Prince Kung, Kweihiang, and Wênsiang.²

CHAPTER XXI.

**The Second Stage of the T'ai-ping Rebellion
(A.D. 1862-1864).****The
Campaigns
of Chung Wang.¹**

We will now return to the narrative of the T'ai-ping Rebellion. As we have already stated, at the outbreak of hostilities between the Chinese and the Allied forces, the territory held by the T'ai-pings had been reduced to the narrow strip of country on the Yangtse between Nanking and Anking.

As the war had the effect of withdrawing many of the Imperial troops to the North, the rebels obtained an opportunity of extending their sphere of operations.

Although Tien Wang, the T'ai-ping leader, gave himself up to a life of debauchery in Nanking, his able general, Chung Wang, "Faithful Prince," by skilful military tactics continued to gain important victories. He cut his way out from Nanking through the lines of the Imperialist army, then under the command of Tsêng Kuo-fan, and having collected a large force at Wuhu, captured the important city of Huichow in the Southern part of the Province of Anhwei. Next he took Hangchow, and then laid siege to Soochow. He was recalled to Nanking by Tien Wang to operate against the Imperial forces surrounding the city, and succeeded in defeating them with great loss, 5,000 of their best troops being slain in the battle. After this, Chung Wang returned

to Soochow, and after routing the Imperialist forces under the command of Chang Kuo-ling,¹ Tsêng Kuo-fan's most efficient general, advanced along the Grand Canal, and captured Wusih.²

**The Rebels
gain possession
of the Peninsula
formed by the
Yangtse and the
Hangchow Bay.**

When the commanders of the Allies collected their forces at Shanghai, previous to their expedition to the North, Ho,³ the Viceroy of the Two Kiang Provinces, besought their help against the rebels, but naturally at that time this request was refused, although it was agreed that a small force should be left to assist in the defense of Shanghai.

In a short time, Soochow, Tsingpu, and Taitsang⁴ fell into the hands of Chung Wang, and, with the exception of Shanghai, almost the whole of the Peninsula, formed by the Yangtse River and the Hangchow Bay, was occupied by the rebels.

**Employment of
Foreigners to help
suppress the
Rebellion.**

The Chinese in Shanghai formed a patriotic association⁵ to resist the rebels, and at the suggestion of Li Hung-chang, who had become Governor of Kiangsu, engaged the services of two Americans, Ward⁶ and Burgevine,⁷ to organize a force of Europeans and Manilamen to fight the rebels. A company numbering about 200 men, consisting of sailors who had deserted their ships, adventurers, etc., was collected, and with this motley crew Ward made an attack on Sungkiang.⁸ In his first attempt he was unsuccessful, but afterward, with the assistance of the Imperialist forces, he succeeded in gaining possession of the city. Next he attempted to take Tsingpu, but there he suffered defeat, owing to the fact that his forces were attacked in the rear by the army of Chung Wang. During the engagement he himself was severely wounded. In August of 1860, Chung Wang advanced on Shanghai, but the European troops in garrison mounted the walls of the native city and repulsed the attack with a withering fire from their guns. The rebels were forced to retire, and in their retreat devastated the country for many miles round about.

**Admiral
Hope's visit to
Nanking.**

When the Allied Forces, after the conclusion of the Treaty of Peking, returned from the North, Admiral Hope went up to Nanking to pay a visit to Tien Wang, and entered into an arrangement by which the safety of Shanghai was assured from attacks by the rebels on condition that the English and other foreigners remained neutral, and gave no assistance to the Imperialists

**Organization
of the
"Ever Victorious
Army."**

In the meantime, Ward who had been preparing to make a second attack on Tsingpu, was arrested by the foreign authorities, as they feared his operations would disturb the concordat lately made with the rebel chief. Ward claimed he was a citizen of China, and was accordingly released. Not being permitted to employ foreigners, he immediately proceeded to organize a new force composed of Chinese troops commanded by foreign officers. This force was the nucleus of what was afterward known as "the Ever Victorious Army."

**The Allied
Forces assume
the offensive
against the Rebels.**

After Ningpo had fallen into the hands of the rebels, and another attempt on Shanghai had been threatened, the British commanders realized that no faith could be placed in the rebel chief's promises, and that the policy of neutrality was a mistake. Admiral Hope paid a second visit to Nanking, and returned to Shanghai strongly convinced that the wiser course would be to take the side of the Imperialists, as only in this way could the safety of Shanghai be secured.

Ward made his headquarters at Sungkiang, and sallying out thence won several victories over the rebels with his newly organized force. The British and French Admirals now agreed to act in concert with him, and to make an attempt to clear the country of rebels within a thirty mile radius of Shanghai.

By the close of 1862 this had been accomplished, but during the campaign Ward was killed in an attack on the town of Tseki.² Gordon,³ who subsequently succeeded him, eulogized him in the following terms, "He was a brave, clear-headed man,

much liked by the Chinese mandarins, and a very fit man for the command of the force he had raised."

**The Appointment
of Major Gordon.**

After Ward's death, Burgevine succeeded to the command of the "Ever Victorious Army," but soon got into difficulties with the Chinese officials. He was haughty and overbearing in manner, and was not trusted by Li Hung-chang. In order to remove him from the Province of Kiangsu, Li requested him to lead his troops to Nanking, to assist the Imperialist forces in the siege of that city. This, Burgevine positively refused to do, unless the arrears in the wages of his troops should first be paid. After a serious altercation between Burgevine and the heads of the patriotic association in Shanghai, Burgevine was dismissed from the Chinese service.

For a short time, the forces raised by Ward were under the command of Captain Holland, a British officer, but met with reverses, and were repulsed by the rebels at Taitsang.

The command was then offered to Captain Gordon, an officer of the allied force which had been sent to attack Peking, who accepted it, with the permission of the British Government

**Gordon's
Campaign.**

When Gordon took command of the "Ever Victorious Army," it had already been in the field two years, and the men were veterans in warfare. He, however, infused new life into the corps. He divided it into five regiments of infantry and one of artillery, each having about 600 men. The officers were foreigners of various nationalities, and the non-commissioned officers were Chinese.

The thirty mile radius having been secured, it was now possible to carry the war into the regions beyond. Gordon's object was to take Soochow, and as a first step towards this he determined to attack Kunshan.¹

While advancing on Kunshan, a message came from Li Hung-chang, urging him to proceed to Taitsang to avenge the death of Li's brother and his Hunanese braves. These troops, who had come from Anking, after that city had been retaken by the Imperialists,

had been decoyed into the city of Taitsang, and ruthlessly massacred. The rebels had employed the following ruse. A number of them shaved their heads, and pretending to go over to the Imperialist side, offered to lead some of the attacking force into the city, and thus enable them to secure possession of it. No sooner, however, had the Imperialists been enticed within the gates, than the rebels turned on them and slaughtered every man.

After severe fighting, Gordon succeeded in recapturing Taitsang. Then, owing to the fact that his soldiers were heavily burdened with loot, he found it necessary to return to his headquarters at Sungkiang, before making an attack on Kunshan.

At Sunkiang a mutiny was caused by Gordon's appointing an English officer to take charge of the commissariat, and many of the soldiers refused to march to Kunshan. Gordon announced that he would march on the following day with or without the mutineers, and that those who did not answer to their names at the end of the first half day's march would be dismissed. This display of firmness caused the mutineers to fall into line.

On arriving at Kunshan, he acted in concert with General Ching,¹ who had been holding the enemy, and watching them. Gordon determined to attack the West, and General Ching, the East Gate. By attacking on the West, the enemy's line of retreat to Soochow was effectually cut off. In the assault on the city, much help was rendered by the "Hyson," a light draft steamer admirably fitted for service on the canals of the Kiangsu Province.

After Kunshan fell, Gordon decided to make it his headquarters. This change was not, however, popular with the Chinese troops, who were reluctant to leave Sunkiang where they had stored their booty, and a second mutiny broke out in the ranks, which was suppressed by Gordon's commanding the ring-leaders to be shot.

The Attack on Soochow.

Kunshan, the key to Soochow, having been taken the next move was an advance on that city.

At this time, Gordon was on the point of resigning his command. Some disagreement with Li Hung-chang, and the fact that the pay of his troops was in arrears, inclined him to take this step. He returned to Shanghai to carry out this purpose. Upon his arrival, he heard that Burgevine had gone over to the side of the rebels, and this decided him to continue in his command. He immediately rode back to Kunshan, reaching that city on the evening of the day he had left for Shanghai.

The advance on Soochow began at once. Upon his arrival at the city, Burgevine, who had joined the rebel forces, attempted to enter into negotiations with him, and proposed that Gordon and himself should take Soochow, and then advance on Peking, overthrow the Dynasty, and establish an Empire for themselves. Gordon, a man of high honor, indignantly rejected these proposals.

As the T'aipings greatly outnumbered the Imperialists, the capture of Soochow was a difficult undertaking. Chung Wang had come from Nanking to Soochow to give his support to the rebels, and his presence was said to be equal to 5,000 men. After a long siege and a continuous bombardment, a party within the city showed signs of willingness to surrender, but Mu Wang,¹ one of the rebel leaders, was bitterly opposed to this step. This caused dissension among those within the city, and resulted in open strife. In the fighting between the two factions, Mu Wang was assassinated. Finally, the other Wangs, or rebel chiefs, consented to capitulate, but did so on the understanding that their own lives would be spared. Gordon promised them protection, and Li Hung-chang assented.

After the city had surrendered, these Wangs were invited to a meeting with Li Hung-chang, and were treacherously seized and decapitated. In consequence of this breach of faith on the part of his associate, Gordon resigned his command, and refused to receive a gift of 10,000 taels sent to him by Imperial order. This act of treachery on the part of Li Hung-chang was morally indefensible, but it was a clever stroke of policy, for as long as the Wangs lived, they would have continued to foment rebellion and

there could have been little hope of peace in Kiangsu Province. After a time, Gordon consented to resume his command. He did so because he knew that unless the advantages already gained were promptly followed up, the war might be indefinitely prolonged. An advance was made on the city of Changchow,¹ and after the fall of that place, the Kiangsu Peninsula was entirely restored to the Imperialists.

**The Fall of
Nanking.**

The last stronghold of the rebels, the city of Nanking, was then closely invested by the Imperialist forces. The rebels, being hard pressed for food, were obliged to send out their women and children, Tsêng Kuo-fan having agreed to spare their lives. Greatly to his credit, this promise was well observed.

A part of the city wall having been blown up by the explosion of a mine, the Imperialists forced an entrance through the breach into the city. As the city fell, Tien Wang ended his life by taking poison. Chung Wang and the young son of Tien Wang attempted to make their escape, but were captured in their flight, and brought back to the city. The son of Tien Wang was executed at once, but Chung Wang was allowed time to finish the memoirs he was writing, and was then sent to the execution ground.

Gordon said of the latter that he was "the bravest, most talented, and enterprising leader the rebels had. He was the only rebel chief whose death was to be regretted; the others, his followers, were a ruthless set of bandit chiefs."

With the fall of Nanking, the great rebellion came to an end. During its progress, over twenty million lives had been sacrificed, and many of the fairest Provinces of the Empire devastated. To this day the ruins found in the cities occupied by the rebels testify to their ruthless vandalism.

The "Ever Victorious Army" was at once disbanded, for Li Hung-chang, fearing it might become too powerful, declined to take the advice of Gordon, and make it the nucleus of a regular standing army.

**The Dispute
over the
Flotilla of Boats.**

During the course of the rebellion, Prince Kung commissioned Mr. H. N. Lay, an Englishman, who had been appointed Inspector of the Imperial Customs, to purchase some small gunboats in England to serve as the beginning of a Chinese navy of foreign built vessels. These ships were built in England and brought out to China by Captain Shererd Osborn of the British Navy. When the fleet of eight vessels arrived, a dispute arose between Prince Kung and Mr. Lay as to whether the vessels were to be under the control of the central government in Peking or of the Provincial authorities. Mr. Lay insisted that Captain Osborn should receive orders from Peking alone, through himself, and also resented the appointment of a Chinese Naval Officer of equal rank with Captain Osborn to be in joint command of the fleet. The Chinese naturally insisted that they should decide how the fleet purchased by themselves was to be commanded, and refused to take over the vessels on any other conditions. As a consequence of this altercation, the fleet remained idle during the rebellion, the time when it would have been of the greatest service.

It was finally agreed to send the fleet back to England to be disposed of, and Mr. Lay was dismissed from his position as Inspector General of Customs.¹ In this post he was succeeded by Mr (afterward Sir) Robert Hart,² who had held the acting appointment since early in 1861. To him is due the present efficient organization of the Customs Service.

CHAPTER XXII.

Important Events succeeding the Suppression of the Rebellion (A.D. 1867-1882).

**Other Rebellions
in the Reign of
T'ung Chih.**

In 1867, an Imperial army was sent to Yunnan to put down a formidable rebellion. This was an attempt on the part of the Mohammedan population to set up a government of their own. They were incited to take this step by the harsh treatment received at the hands of the Chinese officials, and in order to resist a plot, which they claimed was on foot, to put to death all the followers of the Prophet.

The rebels seized the cities of Talifu¹ and Yunnanfu,² and their leader took the title of Sultan Suleiman,³ and sent a mission to England to seek recognition as an independent sovereign, from the British Government.

The rebellion was finally suppressed, Talifu being taken, and the garrison ruthlessly massacred.

Shortly afterwards, another serious rebellion occurred in Shensi and Kansu, owing to an attempt on the part of the Chinese to slaughter all the Mohammedan population in these Provinces. The rebellion spread until the restless tribes in Central Asia became involved, and a chief named Buzurg Khan⁴ set up his standard in Kashgaria. Buzurg, proving incapable of controlling the movement, Yakoob Beg,⁵ his lieutenant, assumed the command.

Owing to the disturbance spreading into Russian territory, the Russians sent a force to occupy the valley of Ili, and took the opportunity, in 1871, of establishing a government in the Chinese city of Kuldja.

Shensi and Kansu were finally pacified by the Chinese General Tso Tsung-t'ang,¹ but the restoration of Chinese rule in Kashgaria did not take place until a later date.

In 1867, the Chinese Government sent its first **Mr. Burlinghame's Mission.** embassy to foreign countries. It consisted of three envoys, two Chinese and one foreigner. The latter was the Hon Anson Burlinghame, who had been Minister of the United States to China. The Embassy proceeded first to the United States, and thence to Great Britain, and the Continent. Mr. Burlinghame's aim was to present China in a more favorable light to Western countries, and to induce them to treat her with greater leniency. He spoke of the prospects of great reforms in the Empire in the immediate future, and thus unintentionally gave a wrong impression as to the desire of the Chinese people to adopt progressive measures. His mission was brought to an unfortunate end by his death in St. Petersburg, in 1870.

Even while the mission was in progress, serious anti-foreign riots took place in Yangchow and in Formosa against foreign missionaries and merchants, demonstrating that the feeling of the Chinese toward foreigners had not materially changed.

In June 1870, there occurred in Tientsin an **The Tientsin Massacre.** anti-foreign riot of larger dimensions than any that had thus far taken place. The French Roman Catholics had become unpopular in China, owing to their enforcement of the article in the Treaty of Peking in regard to the indemnity for property destroyed and the restoration of property confiscated in the past. The minds of the people had also been much inflamed by the publication and circulation of a book entitled "Death Blow to Corrupt Doctrines,"² which called for the extermination of the Christian Religion.

The immediate cause of the outbreak was the spread of stories concerning the Roman Catholic Orphanage. It was rumoured that the Sisters of Charity were in the habit of kidnapping children, and of taking out their hearts and eyes for the purpose of making medicine. In order to disprove these reports a committee con-

sisting of five of the Chinese Gentry was permitted to inspect the premises of the Orphanage, but the French Consul, who happened to be present at the time, resented this investigation, and with much rudeness drove the committee of inquiry into the streets. This roused the fury of the mob, which had assembled outside the Orphanage, to a high pitch of excitement, and an attack was made on the French Consulate. The French Consul hastened to the Yamèn of Ch'ung-hou,¹ the Superintendent of Foreign Trade,² to ask for assistance. The Superintendent asserted he was powerless to render any aid, inasmuch as he had no authority over the officials or the military forces in Tientsin, who were all under the control of the Viceroy of the Province, Tsêng Kuo-fan, then resident in Paotingfu. Although Ch'ung-hou advised the French Consul to remain at the Yamèn until the storm had blown over, he was unwilling to be guided by this advice, and went out into the streets to return to the Orphanage. On the way, he was set upon by the crowd and beaten to death. Then followed the massacre of the Sisters of Charity, and the burning of the Orphanage, and the French Cathedral. Altogether some twenty foreigners were killed, and a large number of their native assistants.

The Foreign Ministers demanded the punishment of the officials who had made no attempt to quell the mob. After prolonged negotiations it was agreed that the Prefect of Tientsin, and the District Magistrate should be banished, and that some of those supposed to be the ringleaders of the riot should be decapitated. The sum of 400,000 taels was given as compensation money, and Ch'ung-hou was sent on a mission to France to make apologies to the French Government. After the settlement, the Chinese Government made a proposal to curtail missionary privileges. This was directed principally against the Roman Catholic practice of separating themselves and their converts from the jurisdiction of the local officials, and against the reclamation of alleged sites of ancient churches. These proposals were, however, rejected, and the Chinese grievances remained unhealed.

**The First
Imperial
Audience.**

On October 16th, 1872, the Emperor T'ung Chih was married with great ceremony, and as he now assumed the reins of Government, and the regency of the Empress-mother came to an end, the question of holding an audience of the Foreign Ministers was once more mooted. The Chinese yielded the privilege, but managed to arrange matters so that the audience was held in the hall for receiving tributary nations, the "Pavilion of Purple Light."¹ The audience was held on June 29th, 1873. The actual reception of the Foreign Ministers by the Emperor himself seemed at the time to be a great step in advance, and many sanguine expectations were entertained as to the possibility of a better understanding between China and the West. These hopes, however, were not destined to be realized in the immediate future.

**Closing Events of
the Reign
of T'ung Chih.**

The last years of the reign of T'ung Chih were, as we have seen, full of trouble. There was also much disorder throughout the country, and great misery was caused by a famine in Shensi and Kansu and by the overflow of the Yellow River.

A war cloud arose on the horizon, in 1868, owing to a difficulty with Japan, caused by the Chinese putting to death some Loochoo sailors who had been shipwrecked off the coast of Formosa.

At first, the Chinese refused compensation to the Japanese Government for this act of violence, on the ground that the Loochoos were vassals of China, but after the Japanese had landed a force in Formosa and had threatened to begin hostilities, an amicable arrangement was arrived at between the two governments, the Chinese agreeing to pay 500,000 taels indemnity. On account of the Chinese yielding in this dispute, the Japanese, a little later, made a bold claim for the possession of the Loochoo Islands, and against this claim China, having already once waived her rights, was unable to make any reasonable resistance.

**The Death
of T'ung Chih.**

T'ung Chih died on January 12th, 1875, and a serious question arose as to the succession. The son of Prince Kung should naturally have

succeeded, as T'ung Chih had died without leaving an heir. There were, however, two difficulties in the way of this arrangement. First, if the son of Prince Kung assumed the Imperial dignity, it would be necessary for the father to retire from office, as according to Chinese custom no father could serve under his own son, and secondly, as the son of Prince Kung was of age, the Empress-mother of T'ung Chih could no longer act as the power behind the throne, a position which she had continued to hold even after her nominal retirement from the regency.

**The Succession
of Kuang Hsu¹
(A.D. 1875).**

By means of a *coup d'état* on the part of T'ung Chih's mother, the infant son of Prince Ch'un,² the youngest brother of Hsien Fêng, was conveyed into the Palace and proclaimed Emperor.

The mother of this child was own sister to T'ung Chih's mother, and thus the latter by enthroning her nephew managed to obtain another long lease of power. The new Emperor was placed on the throne as the adopted son of T'ung Chih, with the Dynastic title of Kuang Hsu.

The wife of T'ung Chih, A-lu-tê, was pregnant at the time of her husband's death, but died without giving birth to her child. From that time up to the day of her death the Empress-Dowager Tz'ü Hsi virtually ruled the Empire. In a short time, Prince Kung was deposed from all his offices, and Li Hung-chang came into prominence as the chief adviser of the Government.

**The Murder
of Mr. Margary.**

After the conquest of Burmah by Great Britain, and the conclusion of the treaty with the King of Burmah in 1862, there was a desire on the part of the English to penetrate the mountainous country dividing Burmah from China, and to open up a trade route into Yunnan. An expedition was sent out under Colonel Sladen, which penetrated as far as Bhamo³ but was then forced to turn back. In 1874, the Indian Government, acting under instructions from the British Home Government, dispatched an expedition under Colonel Browne to proceed into Yunnan by way of Bhamo. It was arranged at the same time that Mr. A. R. Margary, of H.B.M.'s

Consular Service, should travel overland through China, to meet the expedition at Bhamo, and, acting as interpreter, should conduct it through Yunnan and then overland to Hankow. Mr. Margary accomplished his journey successfully, and met Colonel Browne at the appointed rendezvous. Hearing that there was to be armed opposition made to the attempt to cross the mountains, Margary volunteered to go on in advance to discover whether these reports had any foundation. At Manwyne, the first city within Chinese territory, he was treacherously assassinated, and afterwards Colonel Browne's expedition was attacked and driven back by bands of armed natives.

**Attempts to
Investigate the
Murder.**

Sir Thomas Wade, the British Minister at Peking, took up the case and made strenuous efforts to discover upon whom the guilt of the crime rested. The British wished to hold Ts'en Yu-ying,¹ the Governor of Yunnan, responsible, but the Chinese Government shielded him, and attributed the crime to the natives of the Province, who, they claimed, were stirred up to commit the murder by their unwillingness to grant a trade route for foreign commerce through their territory.

Although a commission consisting of three Chinese and three British officials was sent to Yunnan to investigate the matter on the spot, it was never really cleared up and remains a mystery to this day.

After prolonged negotiations with the Tsung-li Yamên, Sir Thomas Wade at last determined to leave Peking and proceed to Shanghai where he could be in direct telegraphic communication with his Home Government, and advise it as to the measures to be taken to bring about a settlement. This step led the Chinese, for the sake of avoiding a possible war, to consent to come to an arrangement satisfactory to both parties, and accordingly Li Hung-chang was appointed Commissioner to confer with Sir Thomas Wade at Chefoo. The result of this conference was the Chefoo Convention.

**The Chefoo
Convention
(A.D. 1875).**

The principal articles of the agreement were as follows:—

- (1).—A compensation of 200,000 taels was to be paid for the murder of Mr. Margary and the other officers, and for the expenses to which the British had been put on account of the Yunnan case.
- (2).—Proclamations were to be posted throughout the Empire enjoining that Englishmen were everywhere to be protected.
- (3).—An Embassy was to be dispatched to London to express regret for the deplorable incident.
- (4).—An arrangement was to be made as to the opium traffic. British merchants, when opium was brought into port, were to be obliged to report it to the Customs, and could then deposit it in bond, either in a warehouse or in a receiving hulk, until such times as there was a sale for it. The importer must then pay the tariff duty on it, and the purchasers the *likin*.¹ (This was ultimately carried into effect in 1885.)
- (5).—The Chinese Government agreed that Transit Duty Certificates should be framed under one rule at all ports.
- (6).—Four new ports, Ichang, Wuhu, Wenchow, and Pakhoi² were to be opened to trade, and six ports of call on the Yangtse, to the landing of foreign goods.

**The Dispute with
Russia in regard
to Kuldja.**

We have already referred to the occupation of Kuldja by the Russians at the time of the uprising in Kashgaria. After the trouble had been suppressed by General Tso Tsung-t'ang, a demand was made upon Russia for the return of Kuldja, which the Russians had asserted they would occupy only until quiet had been restored.

A high Manchu official, Ch'ung-hou, the same man who had been Superintendent of Trade at the time of the Tientsin Massacre, was sent to Russia, where he concluded the Treaty of Livadia, by which it was agreed to give to Russia the most important part of Uli with all the strong passes in the T'ien Shan, the city of Yarkand,³ and five million roubles. In return for

these concessions Russia was to restore Kuldja to China. This agreement was repudiated at Peking, and Ch'ung-hou was arrested and sentenced to death, from which fate he was saved only by the intervention of Queen Victoria who obtained his pardon by means of a letter addressed to the Emperor.

At this juncture, the Chinese, fearing lest war might break out with Russia, invited General Gordon to return to China, and take command of the army. When General Gordon arrived at Peking, he counselled the Chinese Government to make peace with their foe instead of going to war, and declined to enter the Imperial service.

**Treaty of
St. Petersburg
(1881).**

The Marquis Tsêng, the son of Tsêng Kuo-fan, was then sent to Russia to re-open the negotiations, and he succeeded in concluding a Treaty at St. Petersburg in 1881, by which Ili was returned to China with the exception of a Western strip, and nine million roubles were paid to Russia as an indemnity for her claims. For his diplomatic skill in negotiating this treaty, he earned great praise from his countrymen.

**Corea thrown
open to the
World.**

As far back as 1592, after the war between China and Japan in the reign of the Emperor Wan Li, a Japanese settlement had been founded at Fusan, but this settlement had done nothing in the way of opening Corea to foreign intercourse. Corea's only connection with the outer world was the sending of a periodical embassy bearing tribute, from Seoul to Peking. On account of its isolation, it was spoken of by foreigners as the *Hermit Kingdom*. One of these embassies on its return to Corea brought some Christian tracts into the country, which falling into the hands of some of the scholars, led to the founding of a quasi-Christian sect. This paved the way for the Roman Catholic Missionaries to enter Corea, and they soon established a flourishing Church. Owing to the murder of some French Missionaries, in 1866, the French Government sent a small expedition to Corea to demand reparation which, however, proved unsuccessful. In 1870 the United States Government made an effort to open Corea to foreign intercourse, but although the forts commanding the

entrance to the Han River were taken, nothing permanent was accomplished. Six years later a Japanese gun-boat, the *Unyoken*,¹ was without provocation, attacked by the Koreans. The Japanese, by way of retaliation, immediately dispatched an expedition to Corea, and compelled the Korean Government to pay an indemnity, to open the ports of Chemulpo,² Gensan,³ and Fusan to foreign trade, and to allow Japanese to reside in the country on the same terms as Europeans resided in Japan. Japanese settlements soon grew up at Chemulpo and Gensan, similar to the one at Fusan. As Corea was a vassal to China, these inroads of the Japanese caused a good deal of anxiety at the Court of Peking.

Finally the Chinese Government determined to neutralise the action of the Japanese by throwing open Corea to the whole world under treaty. So in 1882, Corea emerged from her position of the Hermit Nation, and entered into treaty relations with other nations. Although Corea was a vassal of China, the treaties which she entered into with Foreign Powers purported to be made by an independent state, and this naturally, in the future, gave rise to serious misunderstandings. China did not intend to relinquish her claims over Corea, as she saw very clearly the importance of retaining control so as to resist Russian and Japanese aggressions. The position of the country on her North-East border rendered this policy necessary as a safeguard to her own frontiers.

**The Korean
Imbroglio.**

In 1882, the King of Corea, being a weak ruler, the power fell into the hands of his father, T'ai Wên Kun,⁴ who had acted as regent during his son's minority. When the son came of age, the father, anxious to retain his power, raised a conspiracy to dethrone him. In connection with the plot a mob was let loose on the Japanese Legation, and the Japanese were forced to fight their way to the coast, and take refuge on a British man-of-war. The young King was made a prisoner by T'ai Wên Kun, and an attempt was made to assassinate the Queen.

The Chinese Government, acting on the advice of Li Hung-chang, adopted prompt measures to suppress the disturbance. A division of troops and a naval squadron were dispatched

to Corea, the conspiracy was put down, and the King restored to the throne. T'ai Wên Kun was kidnapped by a clever ruse. He was invited as a guest on board a Chinese man-of-war, taken prisoner, carried off to China, and banished to Paotingfu in Chihli. The Chinese troops remained in the neighborhood of the Capital, and a Chinese resident, after the pattern of the British residents in India, was installed at the Korean Court.

Japan made demands for compensation, and obtained \$500,000 as an indemnity. A new Treaty Port was opened, and a Korean Mission of Apology was sent to Japan. The Japanese also secured the right of keeping a permanent guard of soldiers at their Legation.

**Strife between
the Reform
Party,¹ and the
Conservatives.²**

Before long, changes were made in the Korean administration, a branch of the Imperial Chinese Customs was established, and other reforms were projected. This led to serious riots in Seoul in 1885, and a bitter strife broke out between the Reform Party and the Conservatives.

A party of the Conservatives, assisted by the Chinese troops, assassinated several of the Liberal ministers, and attacked the Palace, which was guarded by the Japanese garrison. The Japanese were forced to retire to their own Legation, and the King was taken prisoner. Then the Japanese Legation was burned and looted, and the Minister and his staff were compelled to fight their way to Chemulpo. In retaliation for this assault, the Japanese Government immediately landed a force at Chemulpo, and at the same time the Chinese sent an army to Seoul. Both countries, bent on restoring peace in Corea, were in danger of coming into a collision.

**Agreement
between China
and Japan
(1885).**

Li Hung-chang and Count Ito³ of Japan entered into negotiations at Tientsin, and it was agreed that both countries should withdraw their troops from Corea within four months, and, that in case of any serious disturbance arising in the future, if either country intended to send troops into Corea, previous notice should be given to the other country, and also that neither country should undertake a permanent occupation.

**The British
seize Port
Hamilton.¹**

At this time Russia made the disturbed condition of the country an excuse for making a move towards the Northern frontiers of Corea. In order to maintain the balance of power, the British fleet seized Port Hamilton, an island off the Southern coast of Corea, and the British Government asserted that, if the Russian occupation lasted, she would take permanent possession of this foothold. In 1887, when affairs in Corea had quieted down, the British Government withdrew from Port Hamilton with the stipulation that under no circumstances was the island to be ceded by China to any other foreign power.

CHAPTER XXIII.

The War with France and succeeding Events (A.D. 1884-1894.)

French Interference in Annam.

The beginning of French relations with Annam dates back to the time of Louis XV (1715). French missionaries had introduced a knowledge of Christianity into the country, and had met with considerable success in the way of gaining converts. From time to time, troubles arose between Christian converts and the other natives, which led to the massacre of some of the French priests. This gave France an excuse for interfering in the political affairs of the country, and in 1858, owing to the refusal of the King of Annam to carry out the terms of a treaty, the French fleet destroyed the forts of Tourane,¹ and the town of Saigon.² In 1864, the King of Annam was obliged to cede Cochin China to France.

The French desire to annex Tonquin.

After the Franco-Prussian war, the French Government directed its attention to fostering schemes of colonization, and was desirous of annexing Tonquin, the territory lying to the North of Annam, especially as by so doing the rich resources of Yunnan could be tapped by French merchants. Accordingly, one or two filibustering expeditions were sent against Hanoi,³ the Capital of the Province.

The King of Annam had for a long time been a vassal of China, and had sent Tribute Missions to Peking. Hence, he

naturally appealed to the Emperor of China, and asked for protection against the French, especially as he regarded Tonquin as part of the territory over which he ruled.

Li Hung-chang was appointed Chinese representative to carry on negotiations with France, and finally agreed to hand over to France all of the country south of the Songoi or Red River.¹ This proposition was rejected, however, both in Peking, and in Paris. For ten years, matters remained in an unsatisfactory condition, the French being aggressive, and the Annamese exerting themselves to check their inroads.

**The French
attack Sontay²
and Bacninh.³**

In 1884, the French troops threatened the important towns of Sontay and Bacninh. These towns were garrisoned principally by the Black Flags,⁴ a body of irregular Chinese troops which had been engaged by the Annamese to assist in the protection of their country. The Marquis Tséng, then Chinese Ambassador at Paris, informed the French Government that his country would regard an attack on these two cities as a *casus belli*. Nevertheless the attack was made, and the two cities were taken and occupied by the French.

**Convention
at
Tientsin.**

Neither the Chinese nor the French were really desirous of war, and an attempt was made to arrive at some mutually acceptable arrangement by negotiation. A convention was held between Li Hung-chang, and Captain Fournier, of the French Navy, at Tientsin, and it was agreed that the Chinese should withdraw all troops from Tonquin, and that the town of Langson,⁵ and some other places should be occupied by the French, and that in return for this cession of territory the French should respect China's southern boundary.

**The Misunder-
standing as to
the Evacuation
of Langson.**

The French immediately ordered Colonel Dugenne to advance on Langson, but owing to the fact that the Chinese troops had not received instructions from Peking as to the time of the evacuation of these places, they opposed the advance of the French and repulsed them with heavy loss.

This misunderstanding led to further acts of hostility on both sides. The French charged the Chinese with breach of faith, but the Chinese claimed that no date had been specified in the agreement, and that sufficient time had not been allowed to admit of the withdrawal of the Chinese troops from Langson.

**Admiral Courbet
destroys the
Chinese Fleet at
Foochow.**

Admiral Courbet proceeded to attack Kilung¹ in the North of Formosa, but being unable to take it, steamed across to Foochow with his fleet. Presuming on the fact that there had been no formal declaration of war, he took his ships unresisted up the Min River,² past the formidable defenses at the mouth.

In accordance with instructions received by telegram from his government, he then summoned the Chinese fleet and forts to surrender, and upon their refusal he opened fire on the forts from the rear, and upon the Chinese fleet as it lay at anchor. The Chinese, utterly unprepared, were taken at a great disadvantage, and in a few minutes their fleet was completely destroyed. Admiral Courbet then returned to Formosa, where he at once took Kilung, and then attempted unsuccessfully to penetrate into the interior. He was resisted by Liu Ming-chuan³ who afterwards became the first governor of Formosa and built the first Chinese railway on Chinese soil. The Pescadores Islands were also occupied by the French. In Tonquin a guerilla warfare was carried on, and the natives, with the assistance of the "Black Flags," made so determined a resistance that the French were obliged to retire from Langson.

**Peace between
China and France
(June 9th, 1885).**

As the war dragged on, both countries became anxious for peace, as the support of the armies proved a heavy draft on their resources, and on June 9th, 1885, a Treaty of Peace was signed by Li Hung-chang on behalf of the Chinese, and by M. Patenotre on behalf of the French. This Treaty virtually reaffirmed the former Convention. The Chinese gave up all claim to Tonquin.

This war revealed the good fighting power of the Chinese soldier, although at the same time it showed a lack of able and

energetic commanders, except in the case of Liu Ming-chuan, the Imperial Commissioner.

**Some Reforms
after the
War.**

We have already referred to the *coup d'état* resulting in the downfall of Prince Kung. Although the father of a reigning Emperor, according to Chinese custom, is not allowed to hold any important office of state, yet in the case of Prince Ch'un,¹ the father of the Emperor Kuang Hsu, this usage was disregarded, and he began to exercise a very powerful influence at the Court.

The principal reforms following the war with France were as follows:—

(1.) In 1886, Prince Ch'un made a tour of inspection of the defenses at Tientsin, and Port Arthur.² As a result of his cruise, a Board of Admiralty,³ was established at Peking, and arrangements were made with the British Government by which Captain Lang of the British Navy was loaned to the Chinese Government, and placed in joint command with Admiral Ting⁴ over the re-organized Northern Squadron. This position he held for some years, and finally retired on account of disagreement with the Chinese officials in regard to the relative rank of himself and the Chinese Admiral. The Southern Squadron was still controlled by the local officials in the South, and had its headquarters at Foochow.

(2.) A telegraph line had been constructed between Tungchow and Yunnan, and, in 1884, owing to the exigencies of the war with France, the line was extended to Peking, and a telegraph station was established in the Capital.

(3.) The revenue of China was largely increased through the efforts of Sir Robert Hart, who extended the well organized Customs service throughout the Empire.

(4.) Mathematics was introduced into the curriculum of the Imperial examination system, but, owing to the inability of the Imperial Literary Chancellors⁵ to carry this reform into effect, it proved of little practical value, in the way of modifying the old stereotyped classical examinations.

**The Marriage of
the Emperor and
Retirement of
the Empress-
Dowager from
the Regency.**

The Emperor Kuang Hsu came of age in 1887, and in 1889 married Yeh Honala,¹ the daughter of the brother of the Empress-Dowager. The marriage was celebrated with the usual state, more than five million dollars being expended on the festivities. At this time, the Empress-Dowager announced her intention of retiring from the regency, and issued her farewell edict.

**The Audience of
1891.**

In March 1891, Kuang Hsu gave his first reception to the foreign ministers, and it was declared that thereafter such audiences would take place annually in the first month of the Chinese year.

This audience was not entirely satisfactory to the foreign Ministers, as it was held, like the one in 1873 in the "Hall of Tribute Bearing Nations." There was a slight advance on the previous occasion, however, inasmuch as the Ministers handed their credentials directly to a Prince, and were not obliged, as formerly, to place them upon a table.

**The Riots of
1891.**

In 1891, serious riots occurred along the Yangtse River, which resulted in dispelling the vision of China's entering immediately on the path of progress. The disturbances were largely due to an attempt on the part of the conservative *literati* to stem the tide of reform. The introduction of the study of mathematics into the examination system was highly distasteful to them, and they were desirous of continuing the old *régime*. Another cause of the disturbance was the dissatisfaction of a society consisting of the disbanded soldiers who had fought in the T'aping rebellion. It was known as the Kao-lau-hui² and was very anti-foreign in spirit.

The Province of Hunan, with the reputation of being the most conservative in the whole of China, was the centre from which the trouble emanated. A series of vile placards, accusing European missionaries of every crime which disgraces humanity, was circulated broadcast. The prime instigator of the movement was a scholar named Chou Han.³ Rumors were spread concerning the kidnapping and vivisection of Chinese children by missionaries, and the ignorant people were incited to rioting and

murder. Disturbances broke out at Wuhu, Wusueh,¹ Tanyang,² Wusieh,³ Chingkiang, Yangwu,⁴ and Kiangyin.⁵ Christian churches were demolished, and missionary residences wrecked and looted. At Wusueh, on the Yangtse River, two British subjects, one a missionary and one an officer of the maritime customs, were murdered.

The Tsung-li Yamên declared its inability to punish the real culprits, and by way of settlement granted monetary compensation for the loss of life and property.

Chou Han was allowed to remain at large, and was excused for his misdeeds on the ground of being a wild eccentric creature who could not be held responsible for his actions.

One outcome of the trouble was the promulgation of an Imperial edict, which recognised that Christianity had for its object the teaching of men to be virtuous, and enjoined upon local authorities the duty of protecting the lives and property of foreign merchants and missionaries.

CHAPTER XXIV.

The War with Japan (1894-1895).

**China's seeming
Awakening.** The Chinese Government had spent enormous sums of money on the purchase of weapons and munitions of war, and an effort was made to remodel completely the military and naval forces of the Empire. Li Hung-chang was the chief promoter of these reforms, and consequently gained the reputation of being a liberal statesman.

Arsenals were built, and foreigners were employed to instruct the Chinese in all that pertains to the science of war.

A number of youths had been selected and sent to America to be educated under the care of Dr. Yung Wing.¹ This experiment would probably have proved successful, had it been carried out to completion, but the Conservatives in Peking, fearing lest the young men would become altogether too radical in their views, opposed the scheme, and finally succeeded in having them recalled before they had finished their education.

The Naval Ports in the Gulf of Pechihli, Port Arthur, Weihaiwei, and Tachenwan were fortified at great expense, and preparations were made to resist foreign aggressions.

In consequence of these changes, the impression gained ground that China was really awakening from her sleep of centuries, and great hopes were entertained as to her future. Her great sources of weakness, nepotism and peculation on the part of the officials, leading to widespread corruption in the Government were overlooked. These were soon brought to light by the war with Japan.

**The Cause of
the War.**

In 1894, the National or conservative party of Korea, called the Tong-hak,¹ that is, "followers of the Eastern Learning," rose in revolt, avowedly against the Roman Catholic converts, but really against the reformed Government. A force sent against them by the King met with a serious reverse, and consequently help was asked from the Emperor of China. The Chinese Government decided to send a force of 2,000 men to Korea for the purpose of restoring order, and as soon as the force had been dispatched, notice was sent to Japan. The Japanese had already received information from their spies of this move on the part of China, and taking as a pretext the fact that China had failed to consult with the Japanese Government until after the expedition had started, sent to Korea a corps of the Japanese army consisting of 10,000 men. Thus the troops of the two countries were brought face to face in a semihostile attitude. Although negotiations were set on foot, for the withdrawal of the forces of both countries, yet each side suspected the sincerity of the other. While negotiations were still in progress, the "Kowshing,"² a British steamer commanded by British officers, was employed by the Chinese Government as a transport to convey Chinese troops to reinforce the first expedition. As she was on her way to Korea, escorted by two Chinese men-of-war, she was sighted by some Japanese cruisers. The Japanese captain of the "Naniwa" signalled to the captain of the "Kowshing" to make for a Japanese port, as a prisoner of war. On account of a mutiny of the Chinese soldiers the foreign officers were unable to obey this command. Then the Japanese commander ordered the captain and foreign officers on board the "Kowshing" to leave the ship, but this they were prevented from doing by the Chinese soldiers, who thought the presence of the foreigners insured their own safety. The Japanese then hoisted the red flag and poured a broadside into the transport. The scene that followed was frightful in the extreme, and the ship went down, carrying with her most of her passengers and crew.

This led to a formal declaration of war on both sides, and both countries began to pour troops into Corea.

China gave as her reason for going to war that Corea was one of her feudatory states, and that therefore she had the right to interfere in the political affairs of her vassal, while Japan's action was entirely unjustifiable.

Japan's reasons for going to war were briefly as follows:—

(1.) Her resentment at the haughty manner in which she had always been treated by China, and her desire for revenge on account of the attack on the Japanese Legation in 1894.

(2) The assassination of Kim Ok Kun,¹ a Korean statesman, who had taken refuge in Japan, after the outbreak in Corea, had resided there for ten years, and had then been decoyed to Shanghai and murdered by Korean emissaries, whom the Chinese had taken no steps to punish.

(3) The desire to obtain control of the government of Corea, so that Russia should not gain a footing there.

(4.) An earnest desire on the part of the Japanese Government to divert attention from domestic affairs, on account of a civil revolution threatened by the military classes. She was anxious to turn this restless military energy into other channels, and so took the opportunity of allowing it to be expended on China.

The Progress of the War. The first land battle of the war was fought near Asan,² in the South-west of the Korean Peninsula.

A Chinese force under the command of General Yeh³ occupied this town, but as soon as the Japanese approached, General Yeh, leaving his rearguard to defend the place, ~~marched~~ off with the bulk of his army to Pingyang, north of Seoul. After a brief skirmish, the Japanese took the city, and having captured a large quantity of Chinese stores and munitions pursued General Yeh to Pingyang. The latter, on learning of their approach, abandoned a strong position, and in company with General Wei⁴ retired to the North of the Yalu River, leaving General Tso⁵ with a much reduced force to meet the Japanese army. General Tso fought with bravery and desperation, and died

at the head of his men, over whose dead bodies the Japanese forced their way into the city of Pingyang.

In the meantime, the Chinese Government dispatched a large force, consisting mainly of raw recruits, under the convoy of the Pei-yang Squadron,¹ to effect a landing at the Yalu River.

**The Battle of
Yalu.**

The Japanese fleet hove in sight as the Chinese troops were in the act of landing, and consequently the Chinese fleet under the command force, consisting mainly of raw recruits, under the convoy of the steamed out in the V shaped formation to meet the enemy. In point of numbers, the two fleets were evenly matched, there being twelve ships on each side, but the Chinese had the advantage of having some heavily armed battleships. In the engagement that followed, both sides fought with determination, but the Chinese were out-manceuvred, and the fighting power of their ships was greatly crippled as their ammunition consisted largely of armour piercing shells, instead of shrapnel. At the end of the day, five Chinese vessels had been sunk. The Japanese ships were badly damaged and were unable to continue the fight. Seven of the Chinese ships reached Port Arthur in safety and then proceeded to Weihaiwei.

**The
Battle of Port
Arthur.**

On the land, Marshal Yamagata,² in command of the Japanese army, marched northward from Pingyang and crossed the Yalu River, thus sweeping Corea clear of all Chinese troops. Meeting with little opposition he proceeded to occupy Southern Manchuria.

Meanwhile another Japanese army, under the command of General Oyama,³ landed in the neighborhood of Kinchow,⁴ thirty-five miles to the North of Port Arthur. Talienwan and Kinchow opened their gates to the invaders, and Oyama was thus placed in a position to attack Port Arthur from the land side. The character of the country rendered the enterprise very difficult, but the troops surmounted all obstacles, and on the 21st of November delivered their assault. The Chinese having lost con-

fidence in their leaders, after a slight resistance deserted their batteries and fled.

The fall of Port Arthur was a crushing blow, for the place had been deemed impregnable. The victory of the Japanese was so easily won that it is generally supposed that there must have been some treachery on the part of those in command of the Forts. At Port Arthur, the Japanese, infuriated by the discovery of the mutilated remains of some of their comrades, who had been captured by Chinese soldiers, massacred in a most barbarous manner the innocent inhabitants of the place.

**First Overtures
for Peace.**

This series of disasters induced the Government to heed the advice of Li Hung-chang, and to make overtures for a cessation of hostilities.

Two futile missions were sent to Japan, one headed by Mr. Detring of the Chinese Customs,¹ and the other by two officials named Chang Yu-huan² and Hsiao Yu-lien.³ As neither party possessed full plenipotentiary powers, the Japanese refused to enter into negotiations, and proceeded with the war.

**The Battle of
Weihaiwei.**

The Japanese fleet prepared to attack Weihaiwei, China's last stronghold. The Chinese fleet in the harbor was under the command of Admiral Ting, who determined to defend the fortress as long as possible. The Japanese captured the outer forts and then turned the guns upon the fleet and the citadel. One Chinese vessel was sunk by gunfire and several others, including the flagship, by torpedo boats which managed to get inside the defences. After a desperate resistance, Admiral Ting was forced to make arrangements with Admiral Ito⁴ of the Japanese fleet to surrender the town and his ships. After agreeing to the necessary conditions and stipulating for the safety of his men, Ting, in despair, committed suicide, and his example was followed by the second and third officers in command. His death is greatly to be regretted, as he was one of the few leaders on the Chinese side who acted courageously during this disastrous war.

**The Treaty of
Shimonoseki.¹**

The fall of Weihaiwei convinced the Chinese Government that they must make peace with the enemy, and Li Hung-chang was sent to Japan as plenipotentiary.² The discussion had only just begun when an attack was made on Li by a would-be Japanese assassin. On account of this unfortunate occurrence the Japanese government became inclined to offer more favorable terms than were at first proposed. Finally on the 17th of April, 1895, the Treaty of Shimonoseki was signed, and on the 9th of May, the ratifications were exchanged at Chefoo.

The principal articles of this important treaty were as follows:—

(1.)—The independence of Korea was declared.

(2.)—The Liaotung Peninsula (including Port Arthur), Formosa, and the Pescadores Islands were ceded to Japan.

(3.)—An indemnity of Tls. 200,000,000 was to be paid to Japan within seven years.

(4.)—Shasi³ in Hupeh, Chungking⁴ in Szechwan, Soochow in Kiangsu, and Hangchow in Chekiang were to be opened as Treaty Ports to foreign trade.

In consequence of the protest of Russia, Germany, and France, Japan waived her claims to the Liaotung Peninsula, and accepted in exchange a payment of thirty million taels. A supplementary treaty to this effect was signed at Peking on November 7th, 1895.

In return for their services to China in mitigating the terms of the treaty, Russia, France, and Germany demanded some recompense. Russia obtained the right to carry her Siberian railway through Manchuria to Vladivostock,⁵ with branch lines to Moukden and Port Arthur. The French obtained the promise that the Chinese would meet the Tonquin railway on the Chinese frontier, and continue it as far as Nanningfu, in the Province of Kwangsi.

**Revolt in
Formosa.**

The Chinese army in Formosa determined to resist the cession of the Island to the Japanese, and on the 25th of May declared Formosa an independent republic with Governor Tang as the first President.

In a short time the Japanese landed an army and the new republic crumbled to pieces. President Tang took to flight, and disorder reigned supreme.

After the Japanese had subdued the northern part of the Island, Liu Yung-fu, the general of the Black Flags in Southern Formosa, declared himself President of the Republic. Although he was a man of vigorous character, he was unable to resist the Japanese and upon their approach withdrew to the mainland. His army surrendered to the invaders and the subjugation of Formosa became complete

**Result of
the War.**

The result of the China-Japan war was most disastrous for China. It revealed her weakness to the rest of the world. Henceforth foreign powers relied but little on diplomacy for obtaining concessions, but resorted to threats, and to the display of force, feeling sure that China was not in a position to make serious opposition; and there followed a constant succession of encroachments upon Chinese territory by several European Powers. She was burdened for the first time with a heavy foreign debt of over £50,000,000.

CHAPTER XXV.

The Boxer Outbreak.**Unresisted
Foreign
Aggression.**

The collapse of China in the war with Japan, as we have said, led to most serious consequences. China was unable to resist demands made upon her, if they were backed up with a sufficient show of force, and accordingly acts of aggression became the order of the day.

**The Seizure
of Chow² by
Germany.**

On the first of November, 1897, two German missionaries of the Roman Catholic Church, stationed in the southern part of the Province of Shantung, were murdered by a band of armed robbers. The Governor of the Province, Li Ping-hêng,² a man strongly anti-foreign in spirit, made little attempt to bring the culprits to justice. Germany was swift in her demands for reparation, and men-of-war were at once dispatched to Kiaochow Bay. The Chinese garrisons were driven out of the forts, and a small body of German soldiers was landed on the coast with orders to remain there until a settlement satisfactory to Germany was obtained. The German Government made heavy demands. An indemnity was to be paid, Li Ping-hêng was to be cashiered and dismissed from public service, Germany was to obtain mining and railway privileges in Shantung, and was to be allowed to occupy Kiaochow on a lease of ninety-nine years.

**The Lease of
Port Arthur to
Russia.**

Russia looked upon this move of Germany with an unfavorable eye, inasmuch as it gave another European Power a sphere of influence in Northern China, a position which she coveted for herself alone. The policy of Russia all along had been to gain a

preponderating influence in Manchuria and North China, and as a step to this end, she was anxious to obtain an ice-free sea port, open to her ships all the year round.

Owing to the agreement between Russia and England that there was to be no alienation of Korean territory, Russia turned her eyes on Port Arthur and Talienwan, and demanded a lease of them from China on the same terms as those under which Germany held Kiaochow. To these demands China reluctantly yielded, and Port Arthur, one of the strongest naval bases in the world, passed out of the control of the Empire. By its possession, Russia secured a desirable vantage ground for future operations in Northern China. She retained it, however, for only a short time, as it was taken from her in the Russo-Japanese War.

**The Lease
of Weihaiwei to
Great Britain.**

Great Britain unwilling to stand by, an idle spectator and witness Germany and Russia increase their hold on China, put in a claim for the lease of Weihaiwei, as soon as it was evacuated by Japan. China, in return for assistance rendered by Great Britain in enabling her to pay off the indemnity owing to Japan, granted a lease of Weihaiwei for as long a period as Port Arthur should be occupied by Russia. Previously, in 1898, she had also consented to the extension of British territory on the hinterland of Hongkong.

**The Result
of these Acts of
Aggression.**

One of the principal results of these acts of foreign aggression was to embitter the Chinese people against foreign nations more than ever. After the cession of Kiaochow, frequent disturbances occurred in Shantung, and in Manchuria there was much friction between the natives and the Russians. When the British attempted to delimit the boundaries of Weihaiwei, a slight engagement took place between the Chinese soldiers and some native troops who had been drilled by the British, and it was only after the former had been defeated that the Chinese allowed the original agreement to be carried out.

The people of China began to realize that the integrity of their country was threatened, and the fear of partition roused

them as nothing had ever done before, and prepared the way for a serious uprising.

**The Demand of
Italy for
Sanmên Bay.¹**

In the spring of 1899, Italy demanded the cession of Sanmên Bay in the province of Chekiang, but the Chinese Government, despite her recent acquiescence in such demands, offered a strenuous resistance. This change of front was probably due to the fact that the Empress-Dowager had once more assumed the control of affairs, and was determined to pursue a strong policy in regard to further acts of spoliation. She saw very clearly that something must be done to stem the tide, or the days of China as an integral and independent power were numbered.

**The Reforms
of the Emperor
Kuang Hsu.**

In the spring of 1898, when the ship of state seemed slowly but surely drifting towards destruction, a reform movement began to make itself felt in the Empire. The Emperor Kuang Hsu came under the influence of a band of young officials and scholars, full of schemes for the reformation of the Empire. Their leader was Kang Yu-wei,² a native of Kwantung, a man of undoubted ability and strong personality. The Emperor was eager to carry out the reforms suggested by these ardent and radical patriots, and began to issue a series of reform edicts. The system of Imperial Literary examinations was to be completely changed, and among the subjects required of those competing for degrees were to be "a knowledge of ancient and modern history, and information in regard to the present-day state of affairs, with special reference to the governments and institutions of the countries of the five great continents, and a knowledge of the arts and sciences thereof." In this way, a body of officials competent to understand and cope with the questions of the day would be raised up, who in course of time would supplant those who were conservative and ignorant.

Among the other reforms proposed were the following —

(1.)—There was to be a complete reorganisation of the Government—new Boards being established, and those that were useless being abolished.

(2.)—Colleges and Technical Schools for the advancement of scientific knowledge, after the most approved methods of Western nations, were to be opened.

(3.)—The right to memorialize the throne directly was to be conferred upon all officials throughout the Empire, without respect to rank.

**The Coup d'Etat
of the Empress-
Dowager.**

The Empress-Dowager and the conservative officials of Peking regarded these innovations with consternation, and determined that they should be frustrated. The Empress-Dowager was all the more impelled to take this step inasmuch as there was a plot on foot to remove her to a place of confinement, where she would be powerless to hinder the new *régime*. Gathering about her in the capital a strong force of soldiers, she suddenly seized the person of the Emperor, and made him sign his own sentence of retirement, in which he stated that he was compelled to hand over the reins of government to his aunt on account of ill-health; and she then assumed the regency herself. This was on the 22nd of September, 1898.

As soon as she had gathered the reins of government into her own hands, she instituted a ruthless campaign against the reformers. All connected in any way with the new movement were seized, and either banished or decapitated. Kang Yu-wei made his escape to Shanghai, and thence fled from the country.

The Empress-Dowager surrounded herself with Manchu officials of the most conservative type, and on September 26th promulgated a decree abolishing *in toto* the reforms inaugurated by the Emperor. This decree purported to come from the Emperor himself.

Thus the great reform movement was strangled at its birth. The Empress-Dowager breathed defiance to her foreign adversaries and resolved to do all she could to thwart further acts of aggression. In secret she plotted for the driving out of foreigners from Chinese territory.

In one of the decrees issued by her occurred the significant words: "Let no one think of making peace, but let each strive

to preserve from destruction and spoliation by the ruthless hand of the invader, his ancestral home and graves."

Fearing lest the Emperor Kuang Hsu might remain a rallying centre around which the reform element in the country would gather, on January 31st, 1900, China New Year Day, the Empress-Dowager compelled him to announce that he had abdicated, and that the son of Prince Tuan,¹ a child named Pu Chun,² was to succeed to the Dragon Throne. This proposed scheme of the Empress-Dowager called forth a strong protest from all interested in the reform of the Empire, as it was clearly seen that it was intended to place a child upon the throne so that the anti-reform policy of the Empress-Dowager might be perpetuated indefinitely. A telegram was sent from Shanghai, signed by the Manager of the Imperial Chinese Telegraphs, King Lien-shan,³ and 1,230 other signatories, imploring the Emperor not to abdicate. The representatives of the Western Powers also took up an attitude of opposition towards this proposed change in the Government.

The Empress-Dowager, highly incensed by the receipt of the telegram, became more furious than ever against the reformers. Orders were issued for the arrest of King Lien-shan, who was forced to flee to Macao. Upon his arrival there, at the request of the Chinese Government, he was arrested by the Portuguese authorities and thrown into prison, where he remained until after the Boxer uprising.

Other reformers were relentlessly hunted down and a reign of terror was instituted. The violent opposition displayed to the plan of forcing the Emperor to abdicate, compelled the Empress-Dowager to alter her plan in so far that Pu Chun was declared to be the heir-apparent, instead of being proclaimed Emperor, and Kuang Hsu instead of being made away with, as had probably been the original intention, was kept in close captivity.

The "I Ho Chuan," or the "Righteous Harmony Fists,"** familiarly called the "Boxers," were members of a secret society which originated in

**The Uprising of
the Boxers.**

¹ 王端 ² 儁溥 ³ 珊蓮經 ⁴ 拳和義

The characters sometimes used would mean "The Association for Justice and Harmony," but one character was frequently changed so as to make the meaning that in the text.

the Province of Shantung. Their original purpose was to drive out the Manchus and to restore a Chinese Dynasty. They attributed the misery of their country to the misrule of the Manchus and their yielding to the demands of the foreigners. They were strongly anti-foreign in spirit, and so afterwards lent themselves as a tool to the hands of the Empress-Dowager in carrying out her schemes for the expulsion of the foreigners.

They began their anti-foreign campaign in the autumn of 1899. Recruits were enlisted and drilled from all over the Province of Shantung. Their method of warfare was peculiar. They resorted to hypnotic arts, and believed that by charms and incantations they could render their bodies invulnerable. They armed themselves for the most part with swords and spears, only a few possessing foreign weapons. On account of their belief in their invulnerability they were ready to advance against their enemy with the utmost intrepidity, and to fight with the courage of fanatics.

They began their operations by burning and looting the houses of native Christians throughout the Province of Shantung, and emboldened by the little opposition with which they met at the hands of the Chinese officials, they next proceeded to attack the Christians themselves. Their enmity to the native Christians, Roman Catholic and Protestant alike, was largely due to the fact that they regarded them as being connected with the hated foreigners.

The Chinese Government was exceedingly inert in its attempts to put down the uprising, and undoubtedly the Empress-Dowager and many of the conservative officials secretly sympathised with these so-called patriots, and looked upon them as a powerful ally in furthering the secret plot for driving out foreigners from the Empire.

Yu Hsien,¹ who had succeeded Li Ping-hêng as Governor of Shantung, was wholly indifferent to the petitions of Missionaries and Christian converts for the protection of their lives and property. The first foreigner murdered by the Boxers was the Rev. S. M. Brooks, a missionary of the Church of England, but even after that act of violence, no strenuous efforts were put

forth by the Government for the suppression of the disorder, rapidly assuming formidable dimensions.

**The Trouble
extends into the
Province of
Chihli.**

Although some attempts were made by the Chinese army to resist the ravages of the Boxers, yet they seem to have been but half-hearted oncs. It was believed by those who were sent to attack them that these rebels actually possessed magical powers, and for this reason many of the officials were afraid to resort to strong measures for the suppression of the uprising. It was also understood that the Court did not wish too much violence to be used, but only desired to hold the Boxers in check until the plans of the Empress-Dowager had matured.

In a short time, the Province of Chihli was in a state of disorder. Paotingfu was burnt, Tientsin was in danger, and Peking threatened. At the approach of the Boxers, the Legations of the Western Powers at Peking wired to Tientsin for guards to secure their safety, and 450 men from the foreign warships were sent forward. In a few days after the arrival of the guards for the Legations, Peking was cut off from communication with the outside world, the Boxers having destroyed the telegraph and railway lines.

**Admiral
Seymour's Relief
Expedition.**

The position of the foreign ministers in Peking became so critical that Admiral Seymour, of the British fleet, Captain McCalla, of the American fleet, and officers from the other fleets finally determined to undertake an expedition for their relief. On June 10th, a force consisting of about 2,000 men left Tientsin by rail for Peking. It was soon discovered that for miles the rails had been torn up, and the attempt was made to repair them as the expedition advanced. Owing to the fact that the foreign force was constantly exposed to fierce attacks from the Boxers, this effort proved futile and had to be abandoned. The expedition fought its way to Langfang,¹ and then, owing to the scarcity of provisions, and to the fact that at every step they were obstinately resisted, it was determined to give up the attempt and to begin a retreat. The resistance stiffened the day after the

capture of the Taku forts, referred to in the next paragraph, and the Imperial troops joined with the Boxers. On the way back the expedition suffered great hardships, and came near to being annihilated, but they managed to fortify themselves in an arsenal at Siekoo near Tientsin, and were finally rescued by a relief party sent out from Tientsin.

**The Attack
by the Foreign
Fleet on the
Taku Forts.**

In the meantime, the allied squadron of foreign vessels, which had been lying off Taku, prepared to begin hostilities. The commanders believed that they could secure the safety of Tientsin and the Legations in Peking only by taking the Taku Forts. On June 16th, an ultimatum was sent by all the Foreign Admirals, with the exception of the American, to the Commander of the Forts, calling upon him to surrender the forts and to order their evacuation. This he refused to do, and consequently an engagement took place on June 17th, the forts opening fire on the gunboats which had moved into the harbor. After a severe bombardment by the foreign fleet, the forts were finally taken. This action on the part of the allied fleet precipitated the trouble, roused the Chinese Government into open hostility against foreigners, and led to the declaration of war against the invaders. An ultimatum was sent by the Tsung-li Yamén to the foreign ministers ordering them to quit the Capital within twenty-four hours.

**The Attack on
Tientsin.**

The foreign concessions at Tientsin were repeatedly attacked by the Boxers in conjunction with the Imperial forces, and came near to being captured. All the foreign women and children were compelled to take refuge in Gordon Hall, the City Hall which had been erected by the British in commemoration of Queen Victoria's Jubilee. At last the besieged foreigners managed to send a messenger to Taku to inform the allied fleet of the straits to which they were reduced, and an expedition was sent to their relief, with the result that the foreign concessions at Tientsin were saved.

**The Massacre of
Christians.**

The Boxers in their anti-foreign crusade singled out as their special victims missionaries, both Protestant and Romanist, and their converts.

Throughout Shantung, Chihli, and Shansi the churches, schools, and residences of the missionaries were burnt and looted, and missionaries and their converts were murdered.

A secret edict issued by the Empress-Dowager, calling for the extermination of all foreigners, incited some of the ultra-conservative officials to take part in these assaults upon the missionaries. On June 30th, a massacre occurred at Paotingfu in Chihli, and on July 9th, forty-five missionaries were put to death at Taiyuanfu¹ in Shansi, in the presence of the Governor, Yu Hsien, who had been transferred to that Province after the foreign ministers had obtained his dismissal from Shantung.

In Manchuria also, a great persecution of the Christian Church broke out, and missionaries were forced to flee for their lives. Including both Protestants and Romanists, over 200 missionaries were put to death, and several thousand Christian converts were massacred.

**The Attack by
the Allied Foreign
Forces on the
City of Tientsin.**

As soon as the gravity of the situation was realized, the foreign powers began to pour their troops into China, and in a short time a sufficient force had assembled in the foreign concessions at Tientsin to render it possible to make an attack on the native city. The foreign forces deemed this step necessary prior to an advance on Peking. The native city had been strongly fortified, and was defended by a large Chinese army. The first attack of the allied force failed, but in the second assault, through the bravery of the Japanese troops, one of the gates was successfully stormed, and an entrance into the city was secured. The battle was a severe one, attended with heavy loss of life on both sides, but finally the Chinese were compelled to retreat. The city was then given up to loot, and for a time the greatest disorder prevailed.

**The Siege of the
Legations in
Peking.**

In the meantime affairs in the capital were in a most critical state. The Boxers burned and looted at will, and obtained complete control of the city. On June 11th, Mr. Sugiyama,² Chancellor of the Japanese Legation, was killed in a barbarous manner. On June 20th, Baron von Kettler,³ the German Ambassador.

¹ 府原太 ² 賓山杉 ³ 林德克

while making his way to the Tsung-li Yamén, was shot dead in the streets.

After the attack on the Taku Forts, the ultimatum from the Chinese Government, already referred to, had been issued for the withdrawal of the foreign ministers within twenty-four hours. The ambassadors refused to obey this order, as they feared they would be instantly massacred while passing through the streets of the city. Upon this refusal, the Imperialist troops immediately joined with the Boxers in an attack on the Legations, and all the foreign residents in Peking were forced to retreat to the British Legation for safety. A constant bombardment was kept up against the Legation, and the foreigners were in imminent danger of being annihilated.

There seemed, however, to be divided counsel among those directing the attack, and probably this alone saved the entire foreign community from extermination. Many of the Chinese officials foresaw the consequence of such an outrage. Others perhaps waited until they heard of the fate of Tientsin. If the Foreign Concessions of Tientsin had been taken by the Boxers, then the full fury of the mobs in Peking would have been turned against the Legations, and even those officials who still wished to avert the massacre would have been powerless to do so.

In the desire to take the Legations by storm, numerous buildings just outside the Legation walls were successively fired for the purpose of burning out the foreigners. In this way the celebrated Hanlin Academy, with its valuable collection of Chinese books, was destroyed. The American marines, by securing a portion of the wall around the Tartar city on one side of the American Legation, rendered the position of the besieged more tenable, and the holding of this was a great advantage throughout the siege.

**The Relief of
Peking.**

In the beginning of August the allied force, consisting of 16,000 men, began the advance on Peking. It was composed principally of British* Japanese, Russian, American and German

The British force was largely composed of Indian troops.

The British Commander was General Gaselee, and the American, General Chaffee. On the way some opposition was encountered at Peitsang,¹ and Yangtsun.² The expedition finally reached Peking on August 14th, and the city was taken on the following day. The Emperor and Empress-Dowager fled from the city as the Allies entered, and, after suffering much hardship on the way, finally established the Court at Sianfu, in Shansi.

Thus ended one of the most remarkable sieges in history, exceeding in importance the famous sieges of Lucknow and Cawnpore. On the part of the Chinese, the greatest political blunder imaginable had been committed, and China had rendered herself liable to chastisement at the hands of the whole Western world.

**The Viceroy
of the Southern
Provinces.**

While this desperate attempt was being made in the North to throw off the yoke of foreign aggression, a large part of China remained peaceful, and took no part in the outbreak. This was effected by the Viceroy of the Eastern and Southern Provinces refusing to obey the secret edict calling upon them to rise and drive out the foreigners. They realized the rashness of such an attempt, knowing that China was not strong enough to throw down the gauntlet to all the Western Powers. An agreement was made by Chang Chih-tung,³ the Viceroy of Hunan and Hupeh, Liu K'un-i,⁴ the Viceroy of Kiangsu, Anhwei and Kiangsi, Yuan Shih-kai,⁵ the Governor of Shantung, and Li Hung-chang, the Viceroy of Kwangtung and Kwangsi, with the foreign consuls of the different Western Powers, by which the former promised to preserve peace in their jurisdictions provided the foreign troops confined their military operations to the North. This agreement was faithfully carried out on both sides, and was the means of saving China from universal anarchy. It showed clearly that the history of the past had not been entirely without effect, and that some of the most influential officials realized that foreign intercourse need not necessarily harm their country, but might be the means of leading her to internal reform.

**The Peace
Negotiations.**

After the taking of Peking, it was occupied by the foreign forces. The Capital and the adjoining country were completely under the control of the Allied Army. Peking was looted in a way that threw much discredit upon Western civilization. The Russian and French troops treated the people with much needless cruelty and barbarity, and the German forces, inspired with the spirit of revenge for the murder of their Ambassador, went about the country dispersing bands of Boxers, and working devastation. Count von Waldersee¹ was sent out from Germany, and was recognized as superior officer by all the forces except the American.

At first there were no Chinese officials with whom terms of peace could be discussed, but after a time, Li Hung-chang came up from the South, having receiving the appointment of Viceroy of Chihli, and he and Prince Ching² were appointed Plenipotentiaries for negotiating terms of peace.

After long conferences, the following peace protocol was agreed to by the Chinese Peace Plenipotentiaries and the Ministers or Peace Commissioners of the Western Powers.

(1.)—China was to erect a monument to the memory of Baron von Kettler on the site where he was murdered, and to send an Imperial Prince to Germany to convey the Emperor's apology for the sad occurrence.

(2.)—China was to inflict the death penalty upon eleven princes and officials named by the foreign negotiators.

(3.)—The provincial examinations were to be suspended for five years in the places where the outrages had occurred.

(4.)—In future all officials who failed to prevent anti-foreign outrages within their jurisdictions were to be dismissed and punished.

(5.)—An indemnity was to be paid to the states, corporations, and individuals who had suffered from the disturbance, and the Chinese Government was to be allowed to raise the tariff on imports to an effective five per cent.

(6.)—The Tsung-li Yamên was to be abolished, and its functions vested in a ministry of Foreign Affairs (Wai-wu-pu)¹ which was to take rank before the other six ministries of state

(7.)—Intercourse was to be permitted with the Emperor similar to that with the rulers of other civilized nations.

(8.)—The forts at Taku and the other forts on the coast of Chihli were to be razed to the ground, and the importation of arms and war material was to be prohibited for two years

(9.)—Permanent guards of foreign soldiers were to be maintained in the Capital, and also at various stations in order to keep open the communication between Peking and the sea.

(10.)—For two years, Imperial proclamations were to be posted throughout the Empire ordering the suppression of Boxers.

(11.)—The indemnity was to include compensation for Chinese who suffered for being in the employ of foreigners, but no compensation money was to be given to the native Christians.

These terms were severe, but they were far better than many of the Chinese had expected, inasmuch as the integrity of China was preserved, and no further demands were made for portions of her territory.

Prince Chun² accomplished a mission of apology to Germany. China agreed to pay the large sum of 450 million taels, in annual instalments extending over 40 years.*

Although the general desire of the Western Powers was to resist the possible dismemberment of the Chinese Empire, and although Great Britain and Germany entered into an alliance to preserve the integrity of China, yet the actions of Russia in the North soon became ominous and indicated that she cherished designs different from those of the other Powers.

At Blagovestchensk,³ a terrible slaughter of Chinese took place. It was precipitated by the General of the Chinese forces

¹ 部務外 ² 王親醇 ³ 泡蘭海

* In 1908 a portion of the indemnity due was remitted by the United States, with the understanding that it was to be devoted to educational purposes.

attacking some Cossack troops, and was an act of fearful vengeance on the part of the Russians. Men, women, and children were driven into the Amour River and drowned, and thousands were mercilessly slaughtered

Taking as a pretext the disturbed condition of Manchuria, the Russian troops occupied the country. To the remonstrances of the other Western Powers, Russia replied that she had no intention of annexing Manchuria, but only intended to keep her forces there until order had been restored. The terms of the proposed Manchurian Convention showed clearly, however, that the intention of Russia was to secure a paramount influence in Manchuria. This was the object in view that Russia had all along had in mind—the gaining of a strong foothold on the Pacific with seaports open all the year round, and the obtaining of a commanding influence in the affairs of Eastern Asia.

It was the persistent pursuance of this policy that led to the war with Japan.

CHAPTER XXVI.

The Russo-Japanese War and the Period of Reconstruction.**Events
Succeeding the
Outbreak.**

After the terms of the treaty had been arranged, a period of reconstruction began in China. The Court returned to Peking, and after a short interval, the Empress-Dowager placed herself at the head of the Reform Movement. Whether willingly or unwillingly, it is impossible to determine, but at all events she completely reversed her former policy. The serious lesson emphasized by the chastisement received by China at the hands of the foreign powers was taken to heart.

Before, however, proceeding to mention the various reforms introduced into the Empire, it will be well to refer first to the war between Russia and Japan. Although, strictly speaking, it is not an incident of Chinese history, and China took no direct part in it, yet it was fought, chiefly, on Chinese soil, and indirectly in behalf of China. Its results served as the last great stimulus of an accumulating series, impelling China to introduce internal reform into the administration of her government.

**The Causes of
the War.**

Japan was more anxious than the Western Powers to see Russia fulfil her promises in regard to the withdrawal of her troops from Manchuria after the Boxer uprising. When Russia continued postponing the date of this removal on one pretext or another, and in more ways than one evidenced her insincerity in the whole matter, the Japanese Ambassador at St. Petersburg¹ made a succinct demand on the Russian government that she should carry out the pledges she had given.

The insistence of Japan is easy to understand. The control of Manchuria by Russia was a direct menace. It meant the gradual extension of Russian influence over Corea, and in turn implied the possibility of a future invasion of Japan.

A long series of negotiations took place between the representatives of the two countries. Japan made two demands, the evacuation of Manchuria by the Russians, and the recognition by Russia of Japan's suzerainty over Corea. Later these demands were modified, and Japan proposed that a line should be drawn across northern Corea, delineating the respective spheres of influence of the two empires, Russia restricting herself to the north of the line, and Japan to the south. Russia was unwilling to accept this compromise, and delayed so long in coming to any agreement that the patience of Japan was wholly exhausted.

**The Beginning
of the War.**

In the meantime Japan went on with preparations for war. Indeed, no country ever entered upon a military campaign better equipped than the Island Empire. No detail had escaped her attention. The Japanese had thoroughly studied the whole situation, and were in full possession of the knowledge necessary for a successful invasion of Manchuria.

The day after diplomatic relations were severed with Russia, February 8th, 1904, the Japanese fleet suddenly appeared off the harbor of Port Arthur, and delivered their first attack on the Russian ships, disabling two battleships and one cruiser. A few days after, 19,000 troops were landed in Corea, and occupied Seoul,¹ and two Russian men-of-war were sunk in the harbor of Chemulpo.²

With remarkable rapidity Japan massed her troops in Corea, and by the middle of March had landed 100,000 men. The Russians, realizing at last that Japan was in earnest, moved some of her troops toward the frontier of Corea, the Yalu River, to oppose the advance of the Japanese. In a short time they had 50,000 men on the Yalu, but their main army under General Kuropatkin³ was concentrated in Manchuria.

While this was transpiring, the Japanese fleet kept the Russian ships bottled up in the harbor of Port Arthur. Under Admiral Makaroff¹ an attempt was made to force a way out, but his flagship, the "Petropavlovsk" was blown up by a mine, and he and nearly all on board perished.

**The
Japanese plan of
Campaign.**

The plan of campaign adopted by the Japanese was as follows. In the first place to keep the Russian fleet in the harbor of Port Arthur, and to watch the ships in the harbor of Vladivostock² so as to prevent their rendering assistance to those of Port Arthur. In the second place to force their way into Manchuria across the Yalu, and bombard Port Arthur from the land side. In the third place to land a force on the coast of Manchuria to proceed against the main body of the Russian army, and thus to isolate Port Arthur.

In all these plans Japan met with entire success. **Japanese Successes.** The Russian fleet was never able to escape from Port Arthur, and every attempt was repulsed with serious loss by the Japanese fleet under Admiral Togo.³ The ships in the harbor of Vladivostock, although they made several dashes southward, and inflicted considerable damage on Japanese shipping, were never successful in reaching Corea

The Japanese crossed the Yalu with little difficulty and forced the Russians to retreat before them, inflicting reverses upon them at Kiu-lien-ching⁴ (May 1st) and at Kinchow⁵ and Nanshan.⁶ The defeated Russian army retired to Port Arthur.

On May 30th, General Oku⁷ took Dalny (Tailienwan), and thus was able to form a dépôt of supplies for the army that was to invade Manchuria, and for a contingent detailed to assist in the attack upon Port Arthur.

The Japanese in Manchuria advanced along the line of the railroad, and won a series of remarkable victories, in every instance compelling the Russians to give ground and retreat further north, thus wholly isolating Port Arthur, towards which another Japanese host was slowly making its way.

We will only give here the names of the principal battles won by the Japanese. These were Telissu,¹ Liaoyang,² Tai-ling Pass,³ Moukden,⁴ and Tieh-ling Pass.⁵ By the end of February 1905, the Japanese had forced the Russians back towards Harbin,⁶ and two enormous armies there confronted one another to try final conclusions. In the meantime incessant attacks had been made upon Port Arthur. On the 30th of November the celebrated 203 Metre Fort⁷ was carried by the Japanese after a tremendous loss of life. This fort completely dominated the town and harbor of Port Arthur, and by its capture the Japanese were in a position to disable the Russian fleet, and to prevent its rendering further assistance in the defense of the fortress. On January 1st, 1905, General Stoessel⁸ in command of Port Arthur, deeming further resistance useless, surrendered to General Nogi.⁹ At first, it seemed as if he was forced to yield by the shrinkage of his army and by scarcity of provisions. It was afterwards ascertained, however, that his conduct was indefensible, as he still possessed an effective force of 30,000 men, and provisions to last for several months.

**The Battle of
Tsushima Straits
or the**

**"Battle of the
Sea of Japan."**

The Russian Government, owing to the serious reverses suffered by its troops in Manchuria, as a last resort, fitted out a large armada known as the Baltic Fleet,¹⁰ under the command of Admiral Rozdivensky¹¹ to proceed to the East, and to effect a diversion by withdrawing the Japanese fleet from Port Arthur to protect the coast of Japan. The surrender of Port Arthur to the Japanese left her fleet free to oppose this new enemy.

Prior to the advent of the Russian fleet, the Japanese ships were concealed so successfully that no one knew of their whereabouts. They awaited the Russian advance behind the Island of Tsushima.¹²

The battle was fought on May 27th, 1905, and began at two o'clock in the afternoon, Admiral Togo flying from his flagship the signal "The destiny of the Empire depends upon this action."

The Russian fleet was completely surrounded, and as a heavy gale was blowing the hulls of their ships were exposed to the shot and shell of the Japanese. At night the Japanese destroyers continued the work of destruction, and the following day the battle was renewed, with the result that the Baltic Fleet was practically annihilated eighteen ships being sunk, two battleships and two coast defence armored cruisers surrendering, and the remainder taking to flight.

The Japanese losses had been slight, consisting of three destroyers and 800 men killed and wounded, while the Russians lost 14,000 men.

The results of this battle were incalculable. It proved to the world that the Eastern Question had been shifted to the Far East, and that in the future progress of nations there must be a reckoning with the Island Empire. The battle of Tsushima Straits or as the Emperor of Japan has ordered it to be called "The battle of the Sea of Japan" will go down in history as one of its decisive battles.

At the beginning of July, the Japanese followed up the victory by landing troops in Saghalien,¹ a Russian possession, and soon proceeded to overrun the whole island.

After the battle of Tsushima Straits, Theodore Roosevelt,² the President of the United States made an appeal to the Russian Emperor, through the Russian Ambassador at Washington to bring the war to a close. After considerable negotiation, finally on the 8th of August, 1905, the Plenipotentiaries of Russia and Japan met at Portsmouth, New Hampshire, to discuss terms of peace.

The Czar made the two stipulations, that there was to be no concession of Russian territory, and no payment of a war indemnity. At first the Japanese insisted upon both. For a time matters were at a deadlock, but eventually the Japanese modified their demands, and peace was finally agreed to upon the following terms:—

(1.)—Russia to recognize the paramount influence of Japan in Corea

(2.)—Russia and Japan simultaneously to evacuate Manchuria, which with certain limitations was to be restored to China.

(3.)—Russia to transfer to Japan the lease of the Liaotung Peninsula.

(4.)—Russia to cede that half of the Island of Saghalien south of 50° north latitude to Japan.

(5.)—The control of the Chinese Eastern Railway from the coast to Kwanchengtze¹ to be transferred to Japan.

(6.)—Both powers not to employ for military purposes the railway in Manchuria.

(7.)—Japan to enjoy with Russia equal fishing rights on the Siberian littoral.

(8.)—The policy of the "open door" to be pursued in Manchuria.

(9.)—Neither power to erect any military works or fortifications on Saghalien.

(10.)—Each power to reimburse the other for cost of maintenance of prisoners during the war.

Reforms in China.

As has already been stated, the success of Japan did much to stimulate a desire for reform in China. The knowledge of what Japan had accomplished by adopting western military tactics, and by her generally enlightened policy made the Chinese aware that it was possible for them by resorting to similar methods so to strengthen the Empire, as to enable it to bid defiance to foreign dictation. The fatality of their mistake in attempting to free themselves from European aggression by such means as Boxer Uprisings was now clearly understood, and the demand for reform became universal. The Empress-Dowager herself became a convert to the new programme, and reform edicts were issued with rapidity.

Among the reforms introduced the most important were the following:—

(1.)—The reorganization of the various departments of the government, many useless offices being abolished, and the several Boards made more efficient.

(2.)—The entire abrogation of the examination system, in which proficiency in the Chinese Classics had been the test.

In place of this effete system, schools and colleges giving more enlightened and modern education were to be established throughout the Empire, the graduates from these institutions being eligible for employment in the government service.

(3.)—The creation of a new Board of Education¹ with the duty of organizing a complete system of education for the whole Empire.

(4.)—The reorganization of the army on Western lines.

(5.)—Increased enterprise in the building of railways throughout the Empire.

(6.)—The abolition of torture in connection with the examination of prisoners.

(7.)—The gradual suppression of the habit of opium smoking.

**The Foreign
Mission and the
Promise of a
Constitution.**

With a view to the introduction of a constitutional form of government, two foreign² missions consisting of a number of the Imperial Princes, and some high Provincial officials were sent abroad to Japan, the United States, England and European countries for the purpose of studying the various systems of constitutional government.

The missions proved highly successful, and upon their return the High Commissioners reported favorably in regard to the adoption of a constitution by China.

To the great delight of the people of the Empire on September 1st, 1906, the Empress-Dowager issued an edict promising a constitution³ as soon as the people of China were ready for it, and urging upon the officials their duty to prepare the country for this important change.

CHAPTER XXVII.

The Revolution.

**Growth of the
Republican Party.** Notwithstanding the adoption of a liberal policy by the Empress-Dowager, there was a growing feeling that no real reform could be accomplished while the Manchu Dynasty held the throne. Republican principles were circulated secretly and numerous attempts at revolt broke out in different parts of the country.

Dr. Sun Yat Sen, who as far back as 1895, had attempted to raise the standard of rebellion in Canton, and who in consequence had been forced to flee the country, appeared in Japan and was active in organising revolutionary societies among the young Chinese students.

**Granting of a
Constitution.** When the Commissioners who had been sent abroad to study the constitutional government of Western nations returned, the Empress-Dowager on September 1st, 1906, issued an Imperial Edict promising a Constitutional form of government, and a year later, October 19th, 1907, the establishment of Provincial Assemblies was decreed.

The date for the first meeting of a national parliament was finally settled for the year 1916, and in the meantime the people were exhorted to prepare themselves for representative government.

**Death of the
Empress-Dowager
and the Emperor
Kwang Hsu.** On November 15th, 1908, the Empress-Dowager Tz'ü Hsj passed away, her nephew, the Emperor, dying at five o'clock in the evening of the previous day. Thus ended the career of this remarkable woman, who had been the real power in China for so many years. In summing up her character we may say that she was a woman of great ability and strength of purpose, but at the same time cruel, unscrupulous and narrow-minded.

**Succession of
Hsuan T'ung.**

Kwang Hsu's nephew, a child of two years, succeeded to the Dragon throne with the dynastic title of Hsuan T'ung. His father Prince Ch'un, brother of the late Emperor, became Regent. Yuan Shih-kai, who was at that time a member of the Grand Council and the most influential official in the Empire, was dismissed. It is generally supposed that in his last hours the Emperor Kwang Hsu left directions that Yuan was to be punished for his betrayal of the Reform Party in 1898.

**Request for a
Parliament.**

On October 14th, 1909, the Assemblies met in each provincial capital. After a short time the members of these Assemblies came to the conclusion that the time had arrived for the convening of a National Parliament and representation to that effect was made to the Prince Regent. The Prince Regent was of the opinion that the country should be satisfied with Provincial Assemblies and with the convening of an Advisory Senate, the Tzu Cheng Yuan, in Peking. The latter body met for the first time on October 3rd, 1910. It was not long, however, before the members of the Tzu Cheng Yuan took up the same cry, asking for the immediate assembling of a Parliament, and finally the period of probation was reduced three years, so that the Parliament was to come into being in 1913. This, however, did not satisfy either the Senate or the country at large.

**Policy of
Centralisation.**

The Provinces were opposed to the policy of the Central Government tending to further centralisation, and manifested the opposition in regard to the construction of the proposed railways. They demanded that the financing and building of these roads should be left in the hands of the Provincial authorities. The Government, however, entered into negotiations with a syndicate representing four nations for the building of the Canton-Hankow and Szechuen-Hankow railways. The Chinese generally did not trust the Government in the raising of large sums of money from foreign capitalists, and were afraid that it would lead to a twofold evil, first the further interference of foreigners in Chinese affairs, and secondly the increase of the power of the Manchus, as they

could use the Government railways for their troops and thus hold China in complete subjection to the Throne.

When an edict was issued that all trunk lines already constructed were to be redeemed and to revert to the Central Government, and that all new lines were to be constructed by the Central Government, there was much excitement throughout the country and many memorials were sent up to Peking denouncing the policy.

In Szechuen especially, strong resistance was manifested, and soon the whole province was in revolt. Tuan-Fang, who had been appointed Director-General of the Canton-Hankow and Szechuen-Hankow railways, lost his life at the hands of his own soldiers, and shortly afterwards the Viceroy Chao Erh Feng was murdered at Chengtu.

Growth of Public Opinion. "Missionary, and not least medical missionary effort, the opening up of foreign trade with distant points in the interior, travellers, the introduction in some parts of the railway, the establishment of a cheap and effective postal service, modern schools, the reform decrees of Kuang Hsu, the more recent pronouncements of the late Empress-Dowager, the immense growth of the Press, and the comparative freedom of its utterances, the doings of the Provincial Assemblies all had combined, without perhaps changing the people, to accustom them to the idea of change."¹ In addition there was the stimulus of the Russo-Japanese War, and lastly there was the growing influence of the student class who had been educated abroad.

All of these things help us to understand how China was being prepared for a serious revolution. The idea was gaining ground that the only way in which the country could be saved from threatened destruction was by the expulsion of the Manchus.

The Outbreak at Wuchang. The original plan of the secret revolutionary party was for a rising to take place at Canton. If successful, Nanking and Wuchang and the cities along the Yangtse would immediately follow suit. The rising at Canton proved unsuccessful although the Tartar-General was killed by a bomb (April 28th, 1911). The next plan was for an uprising *

¹ Kent, "The Passing of the Manchus," p. 64.

at Wuchang in December 1911, which was to be the beginning of simultaneous outbreaks throughout the country. A bomb accidentally exploded in the headquarters of the revolutionary agents in the Russian Concession at Hankow, which prematurely gave warning to the authorities. The place of the explosion was raided and the documents revealing the whole plot were discovered together with a list of the names of the revolutionists. This forced the revolutionists to make an earlier attempt at overthrowing the Government than had been planned. On the night of October 10th with white badges around their arms and seizing every weapon they could lay hands on, the revolutionists made an attack on Wuchang. Many of the soldiers went over to the side of the revolutionists and the Viceroy's Yamen was taken. Soon the whole city was in a pandemonium.

The revolutionists then compelled Colonel Li Yuan Hung, much against his own will, to take command of the revolutionary forces. On the following day the Hanyang Arsenal and the Hanyang Iron and Steel Works on the opposite side of the river were taken and the three adjoining cities in Central China, Wuchang, Hankow and Hanyang were in the hands of the revolutionists.

**Attempts to
Suppress the
Revolution.**

At first the Central Government at Peking was inclined to believe that the rising was purely local. Two divisions of troops from the North were detailed to suppress the revolt under the command of General Yin Ch'ang, the Minister of War, who was to have control of all the troops in the province. Admiral Sah was sent up the Yangtse with some gunboats to assist in quelling the uprising.

The surprise of the Manchu Government soon turned into alarm, especially as it became known that many of the troops were disaffected. Yuan Shih-kai, who had been in retirement for two years, was recalled to power and appointed Viceroy of the Central Provinces, and the supreme military power was placed in his hands. Some skirmishing took place outside the foreign concession between the revolutionary force and the Imperialist troops while the latter were waiting for reinforcements from the North. In these preliminary encounters, the revolutionists were successful and forced the Imperialists to

retire. When Admiral Sah arrived with his fleet, he bombarded the revolutionists position, but only in a desultory way without doing much damage

**Delay of Yuan
Shih-kai.**

At first Yuan Shih-kai showed considerable hesitation in accepting the Imperial appointment. He was unwilling to return to office unless he could do so on his own terms. The exigencies of the Manchu Government was so great that finally they appointed him as High Commissioner placing all the forces, both military and naval, under his command.

**The Second
Session of the
Senate.**

The Second Session of the Senate began on October 21st, and it soon became evident that the sympathy of the members was with the revolutionists. Sheng Hsun-huai, generally known as Sheng Kung-pao, Minister of Communications who was largely responsible for the policy of centralisation in regard to the railroads, was impeached, and the Central Government made a scapegoat of him and dismissed him in terms of ignominy from all his offices. The edict ran that the Minister of Communications was to be cashiered and never employed again.

Other Uprisings.

To add to the seriousness of the situation, the revolutionary movement spread to other centers. The treaty port of Ichang was the first to declare for the new order, the revolutionary party gaining control on October 18th. Changsha, the capital of Hunan Province, followed on the 22nd, and Kiukiang on the 23rd, and then Sianfu, one of the ancient capitals of the Empire. In all but the last mentioned place the revolution took place with but little bloodshed, but in Sianfu there was a great massacre. The situation got beyond the control of the revolutionaries and robber bands slaughtered and looted at will, many missionaries losing their lives.

**The Fighting
around Hankow.**

The Imperialist forces advanced steadily from the North and met with no opposition from the Revolutionaries until they had arrived in the neighborhood of Hankow. The first battle was fought at Kilo-metre Ten, October 27th, where the revolutionists had strongly entrenched themselves. The Imperialists showed the effects of

better training and discipline, and the revolutionists being attacked from two sides, on the one by the army and on the other by Admiral Sah's fleet, after a brave resistance, were forced to retreat towards Hankow.

**The Destruction
of Hankow.**

The Imperialists on November 1st, began the bombardment of the Native City of Hankow, held by the Revolutionists. Some buildings were set on fire and a strong north wind carried the flames along until the whole city was in conflagration. This terrible destruction of property and the untold misery which followed, resulted in making the Imperialist cause even more execrated than it was before.

**The Manchu
Renunciation.**

The Treasury of the Manchu Government was depleted and in order to raise money for carrying on military operations, attempts were made to raise a loan from foreign powers. After due consideration, foreign nations decided to adopt a policy of strict neutrality and accordingly Yuan Shih-kai was unable to obtain the assistance he needed. At this juncture three of the generals of the Imperial Army sent memorials to the capital demanding the instant granting of a Constitution. The Imperial Government fearing a mutiny among the troops and an attack on Peking if the request was denied, issued a series of edicts, confessing the sins and shortcomings of the Manchu Dynasty, promising various reforms and promulgating a Constitution containing nineteen articles. Yuan Shih-kai was elected Premier by the Senate, and returned to Peking and formed a cabinet, thus launching the new experiment of Constitutional government in China.

**Further Acts of
Secession.**

The proposed Constitution did not, however, meet with the favor anticipated. The Revolutionists had made up their minds that the Manchu Dynasty must go, and that a Republican form of government must be established. They put no confidence in Manchu promises. Province after province in quick succession went over to the side of the Revolution, only Chihli and Honan remaining loyal. Canton at one time meditated setting up an independent government of its own. The messengers sent by Yuan Shih-kai to Wuchang to try to arrange matters were unable to accomplish

anything. Shanghai went over quietly on November 4th and established a new government and issued a Republican Manifesto to the nations of the world.

**The Fall of
Hanyang.**

To return to Hankow, fighting continued in a more or less determined manner, but without any decisive results. The Imperialists seemed to be marking time. On Sunday, November 12th, the fighting began again in earnest. The Revolutionists had been reinforced by ten thousand Hunanese troops and had been much encouraged by the news that the fleet under Admiral Sah was on the point of deserting the Imperialist side. The object of the Imperialists was to take Hanyang, which had been strongly fortified by the Revolutionists, and a severe struggle ensued. In the end the courage and fighting skill of the Imperialists would finally have brought them into Hanyang, but further loss of life was spared owing to dissension among the revolutionary forces. Jealousy broke out between the Hupei and Hunan men, the latter considering that the hardest work was assigned to them. Becoming demoralised by the persistence and accuracy of the Imperialist attack, they abandoned their positions and retired to Wuchang on the night of the 26th. As a result Hanyang fell into the hands of the Imperialists on the 27th.

**The Capture of
Nanking.**

In the meantime a revolutionary force had been dispatched to take Nanking, which was successfully accomplished on the 2nd of December. This victory did much to make up for the loss of Hanyang and to restore the prestige of the revolutionary cause.

An Armistice.

After the fall of Hanyang an armistice of fifteen days was arranged. All fighting was to cease while terms of peace were being negotiated. The Imperialists realising that the revolution had become widespread throughout China, began to understand the impossibility of winning back the country to the Manchus. On December 6th, the Prince Regent was relegated to private life by the Empress-Dowager. He had shown himself a well meaning, but weak man, and it was natural for the Manchus to throw all the blame of the revolution upon his mismanagement of State affairs.

**The Peace
Conference.**

Yuan Shih-kai, after the armistice had been declared, appointed T'ang Shao-yi to proceed to the South to confer with the revolutionists in regard to terms of peace. At first it was proposed to hold the conference in Hankow, but the revolutionists demanded that the negotiations should take place in Shanghai, which was looked upon as more neutral ground. The first meeting took place on December 18th, when there was present T'ang Shao-yi and four other Commissioners on the Imperialist side, and Dr. Wu Ting Fang and five others representing the Republicans. The armistice was extended to allow more time for discussion. After heated debates, T'ang Shao-yi virtually yielded to all the demands of the Republicans, agreeing to the summoning of a National Convention which should have power to decide the future form of government. Yuan Shih-kai, however, took the stand that T'ang Shao-yi had exceeded his instructions and that he could not be bound by the agreement entered into. T'ang's reply was to tender his resignation which was accepted on January 2nd, and the Peace Conference came to an unfortunate end.

**Establishment of
the Republic
at Nanking.**

The Revolutionists were determined to establish a Republic, and chose Nanking as the capital. Thither delegates of the Provisional Assembly from thirteen Provinces gathered and commenced to hold meetings to discuss the form of government. Just at this time Dr. Sun Yat Sen arrived in China, reaching Shanghai on the 24th of December. At a meeting of the delegates in Nanking he was elected provisional President, and on January 1st, 1912, he was inaugurated amid the booming of guns. He swore to strive for the restoration of peace, for the establishment of a government based on the will of the people, and to dethrone the Manchu Ruler. These things accomplished, he promised to resign office in order that the people might elect their President. Thus the man who had been a fugitive from his country, and on whose head a large price had been fixed, returned in triumph to see the successful issue of all his plotting and planning.

**Time
of Confusion.***

After the establishment of the Provisional Government at Nanking, there was much disorder throughout the country. The soldiers often got

out of hand and engaged in rioting and looting. Both in Peking and in Nanking the authorities were hard pressed for want of funds to pay the troops and carry on the Government. Jealousy between the North and South sprang up and it looked as if the country would be rent in twain. A great famine occurred in Central China, causing an enormous loss of life. It was difficult for the Republican Party in the South to come to any satisfactory settlement with Yuan Shih-kai. An attempt on the life of the latter was made in Peking by the throwing of a bomb.

**Manchu
Abdication.**

The situation was somewhat simplified by the abdication of Hsuan T'ung on February 12th, and the complete retirement of the Manchus from the Government. This was brought about peacefully by the diplomacy of Yuan Shih-kai and showed him to be a master of statecraft. When he found that it was impossible to bolster up the Dynasty any longer, he made arrangements by which it could be quietly got rid of, giving assurances that the lives of the Manchus would be respected and that ample provision would be made for their support.

Thus ended the Ta Ch'ing Dynasty. It had "exhausted the Mandate of Heaven." A race that in the beginning had been virile and skilled in the art of war had gradually become effete and utterly corrupt. The mistakes of the Manchus had been many. They had never completely identified themselves with the Chinese and had ruled them as a conquered people. They had become utterly selfish, caring more for the preservation of themselves than for the welfare of the people. Their policy had been shortsighted in the extreme and instead of taking the lead in the development of a Constitutional form of government demanded by the people, they had attempted to stifle the national aspirations. During their rule, China had been subjected to repeated humiliations at the hands of foreign powers, and it is no wonder that they came to be thoroughly hated and mistrusted.

CHAPTER XXVIII.

Establishment of the Republic.**Retirement of
Sun Yat Sen.**

After two months as provisional President Dr. Sun Yat Sen decided to resign and to place the government in the hands of Yuan Shih-kai. He perceived that the only possible way of holding the North and the South together was by the election of Yuan as President. He stated his views to the National Assembly and persuaded them to take this course. On the morning of February 15th, before his retirement, he performed a picturesque ceremony at the tomb of the first Emperor of the Mings, outside the city of Nanking, symbolically offering back to their old rulers the country which the Manchus had wrested from them. In the afternoon of the same day, the Assembly elected Yuan Shih-kai as President

**Discussion as to
the Situation of
the Capital.**

At this time a great discussion arose as to the position of the capital of the Republic. Naturally the Southerners were anxious to move it from Peking and earnestly desired to make Nanking the centre of the new Government. Yuan Shih-kai was invited to come to Nanking for his inauguration, and Nanking delegates were sent to escort him to the South. Shortly after the arrival of these delegates in the Northern Capital, a mutiny broke out among the troops of Yuan Shih-kai, and Peking was looted in various quarters. For a time Yuan Shih-kai seemed powerless to quell the disturbance. In consequence of it and for fear that further disturbance might break out if he left the city, he was allowed to take the oath in Peking on Sunday, March 10th. A few days later he appointed Mr. T'ang Shao-yi as Premier.

The problem of finance was the first to occupy the attention of the new Government. **Loan Negotiations.** Negotiations for a large foreign loan from British, French, German and American financiers were entered into. Later Russian and Japanese representatives joined the group. Discussions arose as to the conditions on which the loan should be made, the foreigners insisting that there should be foreign supervision of the expenditure of the money. This was not acceptable to the Chinese authorities, who wished to have an entirely free hand. A complication was introduced by Mr. T'ang Shao-yi privately negotiating a Belgian loan before the large loan had been settled. By the withdrawal of America, what was known as the proposed Sextuple Loan, became the Quntuple Loan.

In the meantime steps were taken for the assembling of a National Advisory Council, to be composed of five representatives of each province and representatives from the dependencies. **National Advisory Council.** The representatives from the provinces were to be elected by the Provincial Assemblies, and the Tutu of each province was to call a provincial assembly for the purpose of exercising the electoral privilege. The formal opening of the National Advisory Council took place on April 29th, 1912.

The work of this body for the most part proved most unsatisfactory. It was split up into various political parties, which were inclined to place party interests above those of the country. It obstructed the Chief Executive and was constantly at cross purposes with him. It delayed so long in drawing up the regulations for a general election for a National Convention that when the time of the election came, it was held in a very imperfect manner. Owing to its obstructive measures, frequent changes took place in the Cabinet and many of the best men retired from office.

The General Election for members of a National Convention to consist of two houses, the Senate and House of Representatives, took place in the spring of 1913, and the first National Convention or Parliament convened in Peking on April 8th. To it was intrusted the task of drawing up a Constitution and the election of

a President Just as the delegates from Shanghai were about to take the train for the North, there occurred a political assassination, which stirred up deep feeling throughout the country. Sung Chiao-jen one of the leaders of the Kuomintang, the extreme Republican party, was shot in the Shanghai-Nanking railway station. It was an evidence of the extreme tension existing between the political factions.

**Foreign
Complications.**

During the transition period in China, in addition to internal troubles, China was troubled with foreign complications. Her hold on Manchuria since the Russo-Japanese War had been growing weaker, and now Mongolia and Tibet seemed to be slipping from her grasp. Russia was anxious to gain control in Mongolia and encouraged the Mongolians to assert their independence. Chinese misrule is largely responsible for the disaffection in Tibet, and England was opposed to China's maintaining complete sovereign rights in that territory.

**The Second
Revolution.**

During the summer of 1913 a Second Revolution broke out. The extreme Republican party had never been friendly to President Yuan Shih-kai, and the outbreak was directed against him and his policy. Probably the disturbance was due to political jealousy as much as to anything, but the reasons given for the attempt to overthrow him were (1) the fear of his becoming a military dictator (2) the suspicion that he was implicated in the assassination of Sung Chiao-jen; and (3) the completion of the negotiation of the Five Nations Loan without the consent of Parliament.

The Second Revolution differed from the first in that it did not appeal to the people of China generally. To the solid common sense of the Merchant Class it was evident that the success of the Revolutionists meant anarchy, inasmuch as the leaders would fight among themselves for the spoils of victory.

After the suppression of the Revolution there followed a period of reaction. The Parliament was dissolved, and a new provisional Constitution was promulgated, vesting large powers in the hands of the President. The Central Government was strengthened, and the army employed to suppress sedition. A

military governor or Tuchun was appointed in each province superior to the civil governor.

Owing to a feeling of uncertainty commerce suffered and, owing to the lack of funds, new industrial enterprises were at a standstill and educational measures postponed.

CHAPTER XXIX.

**The First Twelve Years of the Republic
(1911-1923).****The Constitutional
Compact.**

In January 1914 as we have said the National Assembly was dissolved and a new advisory body was created to act in its stead, filled with Yuan Shih-kai's nominees. He brought out a new constitution known as "The Constitutional Compact." This placed large powers in the hands of the President and gave him the right of appointing Tuchuns or military governors over the provinces. The provincial assemblies were abolished. The annual worship at the Temple of Heaven, and the official worship of Confucius were restored.

This constitution contained the remarkable Presidential Succession Law which provided that the President's term of office should be ten years and that he should have the right to nominate three persons from whom his successor should be chosen. The names of these three nominees were to be put in a gold box, which was to be concealed in a marble monument and not to be opened until the death of the President or the expiration of his term of office.

An electoral college consisting of 50 members of the Legislative Chamber and 50 members of the Senate was to be appointed to pass on these names, and the name of the President if he desired to continue in office.

* Visitors may see this Marble Monument erected by Yuan Shih-kai in the Garden of the Presidential Residence.

**Complications
arising from the
outbreak of the
World War,
August 1914.**

Although at first China remained neutral and did not participate in the World War, yet she felt its effects and, owing to the fact that European nations were engaged in a death struggle, Japan obtained a free hand to attempt to bring China

under her control.

**The Taking
of Kiaochao,
November
16th, 1914.**

Japan decided to abide by the terms of Anglo-Japanese Alliance and to throw in her lot with the Allies against the Central Powers. She volunteered to drive out the Germans from

the leased territory, Kiaochao, and sent both an army and a fleet to attack it. The British troops took a small part in the campaign, but the main force was Japanese. President Yuan was compelled to consent to the violation of the laws of neutrality and to permit the Japanese troops to land on the coast of Shantung and march overland to Kiaochao. Although the resistance of the Germans was, from the nature of the case, hopeless, they attempted to hold the place. It was finally captured by assault on November 16th, 1914.

After the capture of Kiaochao, instead of handing it back to China, the Japanese entered upon an occupation which lasted until 1923.

**The Twenty-one
Demands,
May 7th, 1915.**

In 1915 the Japanese Government presented twenty-one demands to the Chinese Government, the object of which was to make China become a vassal state. At first the nature of these

demands was kept secret, but as soon as their purport was revealed, both China and the rest of the world received a severe shock. These demands infringed upon the sovereignty of China. The articles known as Group V were the most obnoxious, as they would give Japan a protectorate over China and a controlling interest in the Yangtse Valley and would make her paramount in Shantung, Manchuria and Eastern Inner Mongolia.

On May 7th, 1915, with the exception of Group V which was temporarily withdrawn, China was compelled to submit to these demands. Since that time this day has been known as the Day of Humiliation. The forcing of these demands was due to the fact that the militaristic party had succeeded in dominating the

policy of Japan. Their reason for taking this step was the fear of what might occur after the war was over.' It seemed possible that there might be a partition of China among the victors, and Japan was desirous of forestalling Europe by obtaining control.

**President Yuan's
plan to restore
the Monarchy.**

As will be readily understood, President Yuan had never been in entire sympathy with the revolutionary party. He did not believe in the Republic and he did not think China could be governed in that way.

A monarchical propaganda was instituted, and a good deal was made out of a memorandum which had been drawn up by Dr. Goodnow, one of the President's advisers, which suggested that constitutional monarchy was perhaps better adapted to the genius of the Chinese people than the Republican form of government.

Petitions were sent to the Senate advocating a change in the form of government. President Yuan, in order to appear to be acting in a constitutional way, referred the matter to the provinces, and issued a mandate calling upon each province to appoint an electoral college to vote on the matter. Undoubtedly a good deal of bribery was used to obtain the vote that was desired. By December of 1915 Yuan Shih-kai had apparently been unanimously elected Emperor of China by the official ballots of these electoral colleges.

The Senate then offered him the throne. Although at first he pretended to be reluctant to accept it, he finally consented and preparations began to be made for his coronation, and the date of his accession to the throne was fixed for February 9th, 1916.

**Revolt against
restoration of
the Monarchy.**

Japan did not look with favor upon the elevation of Yuan Shih-kai to this exalted position. Since the time that he had opposed Japanese aggression in Korea he had become *persona non grata* to the Japanese Government. Largely due to the influence of Japan, a revolt against the overthrow of the Republic was organized throughout China.

It made itself evident first in Yunnan under the leadership of Tsao Ao¹ and thence spread to Kweichow, K'wangsi and Szechuen.

Although at first President Yuan tried to oppose the rising tide of revolt and organized a punitive expedition of 80,000 men, and attempted to win over his opponents by conferring on them the rank of Dukes, Marquises, Viscounts and Barons, he was finally forced to yield to the storm. On February 23rd the enthronement ceremony was indefinitely postponed, and on March 22nd the Emperor-Elect issued a mandate cancelling the monarchy scheme, and declaring he would form a responsible cabinet. He was unable to quiet the disturbance in this way and by the middle of April five provinces, Yunnan, Kweichow, Kwangsi, Kwangtung and Chekiang had declared their independence. On May 6th, Szechuen followed suit. A southern confederacy was organized with a supreme military council sitting at Canton.

**Death of
Yuan Shih-kai,
June 6th, 1916.**

Due largely to the mental strain and anxiety which he had endured, President Yuan experienced a complete nervous collapse and died on June 6th of uraemia of the blood. So passed away one of the ablest and at the same time one of the most unscrupulous of China's statesmen, and the country at large breathed a sigh of relief. Whether wisely or unwisely, China had decided that she would abide by the determination to establish a republic.

**Succession of
Li Yuan-hung.**

The Vice-President, Li Yuan-hung, much to the surprise of everyone, was allowed to succeed quietly to the office of president, according to the terms of the Provisional Constitution.

Li Yuan-hung's career had been a remarkable one. He had been trained as a military man at Tientsin, and afterwards had resided for some time in Japan. In 1911, as has already been stated, he was forced to become leader of the revolutionists in Wuchang. Entirely without political training, he commanded the confidence of the people by a marked integrity of character.

**First year of Li's
administration.**

One of the first acts of President Li was to reassemble parliament, which had been suspended by President Yuan, and the matter of the drafting of the Constitution was taken in hand again. One of the chief difficulties encountered in conducting the government was due to the fact that the relation between parliament and the cabinet had never been clearly defined and

settled, and another difficulty arose out of the mutual hostility of the two principal political parties, the Kuo Ming Tang¹ or "nationalists" and the Chinpu Tang² or "progressives."

**International
Complications.**

China was plunged into an unfortunate controversy with Japan, owing to a conflict between the troops of the two countries at a small town named Chengchiatun, sixty miles west of the South Manchurian Railway, on the Mongol-Manchurian border, and was obliged to make reparations.

The French Government, which for a long time had been desirous of extending its settlement in Tientsin, wearied by the protracted negotiations, seized upon the desired strip of land, known as Lao-hsi-kai,³ and refused to give it up. This highhandedness on the part of the French roused much feeling throughout the country.

**China severs
diplomatic relations
with Germany,
March 10th, 1917.**

At the beginning of the War, there was considerable sympathy with Germany throughout China. This was due to several causes. The Germans had been tactful in their commercial dealings with the Chinese, and had won considerable popularity by adopting oriental methods of finance. China believed in the power of Germany and thought she would be the victor. She considered that a powerful Germany would help her in resisting the encroachments of Japan. Her leanings toward autocratic Germany are an evidence that she had no real comprehension of the issues at stake and no real understanding of democracy.

After the United States had finally severed diplomatic relations with Germany, the United States Minister at Peking, Dr. Paul S. Reinsch, was instructed to persuade China to follow the example set by the great republic of the West, on the ground that the moral influence of such a rupture would be considerable.

Minister Reinsch succeeded in persuading President Li of the advisability of this step and on the 10th of March Parliament made a protest against ruthless submarine warfare and broke off diplomatic relations.

Chinese commerce had not suffered to any extent by the submarine warfare and the only justification for adopting this policy was the hope that, when the final settlement took place between the warring nations, China would obtain better terms than if she remained neutral.

**Dissolution of
Parliament.**

General Tuan Chi-jui¹ was at this time Premier, and exercised great influence over the Tutchuns or militarists. He made persistent attempts to force Parliament to declare war against Germany. This measure was unpopular with President Li and with the country at large. The Japanese Government, which had been opposed to China's severing diplomatic relations, was now, strangely enough a strong advocate for China's participation in the War, and this made the proposal all the more unpopular with those who were anti-Japanese.

President Li removed Tuan Chi-jui from office so as to break the deadlock between him and Parliament. The military governors on the other hand supported Tuan's policy and requested the President to dissolve Parliament.

In his dilemma President Li summoned General Chang Hsun, Commander of the Yangtse Provinces, one of the most reactionary leaders in China, to come to Peking to act as mediator. On the 10th of June Chang Hsun forced President Li to dissolve Parliament. Dr. Wu Ting-fang,² Acting Premier, refused to countersign the mandate and took his departure from Peking.

The dissolution of Parliament was the triumph of the militarists over the constitutionalists, and led to the revolt in the South of which we will speak later.

**Chang Hsun's
attempt to restore
the Monarchy.
July 1st, 1917.**

General Chang Hsun,³ believing that he had the support of the military party, made an attempt to restore the Monarchy and on July 1st the Young Emperor, Hsuan Tung,⁴ was again seated on the throne.

President Li took refuge in the Japanese Legation. This *coup d'état* provided Tuan Chi-jui with the opportunity of uniting the northern generals under his leadership for the restoration of

the Republic. He led a strong force against Peking and attacked the forces of Chang Hsun on July 12th. Chang Hsun finding that he was betrayed, gave up the useless struggle and fled to the Dutch Legation. The restored Monarchy had lasted only a few weeks.

Declaration of War against Germany. President Li refused to resume office, and the vice-president, Feng Kuo-chang,¹ succeeded and Tuan Chi-jui again became Premier. War was finally declared against Germany on August 14th, 1917.

Among the considerations determining China to take this step were the following:—

1. The desire of obtaining a place at the Peace Conference, where the question of the Japanese occupation of Shantung would come up
2. The wish to cement friendship with the United States
3. The desire of the militarists to strengthen their control of the Government.

Election of President Hsu Hsih-chang, September 4th, 1918. A new parliament was created composed of nominees of the northern militarists. It assembled in August 1918 and on September 4th elected Hsu Hsih-chang² as President. No vice-president was elected and that office still remains vacant.

Establishment of a Government in the South. As we have already said, the dissolution of Parliament by President Li led to a division between the North and the South. The members of the dissolved Parliament reassembled in Canton, and a new Government in which Sun Yat-sen, Tang Shao-yi³ and Wu Ting-fang played a prominent part came into existence. This South-Western Government sequestered the Salt Gabelle but was unable at first to obtain any of the foreign customs revenue.

President Hsu's desire for peace. President Hsu was very anxious to bring about peace between the North and the South, but he was entirely under the control of the military governors and had very little freedom of action.

After the collapse of Germany in the World War and the signing of the Armistice, November 11th, 1918 it seemed still more desirable to bring about the unification of the country, so that it might act as a unit at the Peace Conference.

**Peace Conference
in Shanghai,
February 1918.**

An armistice between the warring factions of the North and South was declared on November 17th T'ang Shao-yi was appointed chief delegate of the Southern and Chu Chia-chuan chief delegate of the Northern Government. Shanghai was finally settled upon as the place of a conference. The negotiations were long and protracted, but no agreement was reached and the division in the country remained unhealed.

**Trouble in
Thibet.**

Owing to misgovernment on the part of the Chinese Resident in Thibet, a serious revolt took place, and the Thibetan forces advanced toward the frontier of China. Chamdo was taken and Rombitsa was besieged. Through the services of the British Vice-Consul, a truce was finally arranged and hostilities came to an end. The future of Thibet still remains an open question.

Internal Troubles.

The year 1919 was marked by several severe calamities. In the first place there was an outbreak of plague in Manchuria which spread to Southern Mongolia and to Shansi. Dr. Wu Lien-teh,¹ head of the Plague Prevention Bureau by his vigorous efforts succeeded in stamping it out, but not until it had reached Nanking and threatened Shanghai.

**Recrudescence
of Opium
Cultivation.**

Owing to the breakdown of the civil government and the need of money on the part of the military governors, the cultivation of opium was again legalized in some of the provinces and connived at in others. Indian opium was still smuggled into the country. Even the Central Government was suspected of seeking to make a profit out of the drug. As a protest and as an evidence of the sincerity of the Central Government to suppress it, a spectacular demonstration was staged in Shanghai. On January 17th, 1918 the 1,200 chests of Indian Opium that still remained in Shanghai were committed to the flames in furnaces especially erected for the purpose.

**The Conference
at Versailles.**

In the meantime the Peace Conference at Versailles had been in session.² China was represented by Lu Cheng-hsiang,¹ V. K. Wellington Koo,² Hawkling L. Yen,³ Hu Wei-te,⁴ Dr. Sao-Ke Alfred Sze⁵ and C. T. Wang.⁶

China went to the conference with great expectations, hoping to regain full control of Kiaochao and Shantung, the abolition of Extraterritoriality, the return of all concessions and "foreign settlements," favorable modification of the most-favored nation clause, and the cancellation of the Boxer Indemnity. She was doomed to disappointment, and the rights of Germany in Kiaochao were transferred to Japan.

China refused to sign the Treaty of Peace with Germany, but brought the state of war between herself and Germany to an end by a notice issued on September 15th, 1919. As she was among the signatories of the Peace Treaty with Austria, she became entitled to membership in the League of Nations.

The feeling against Japan throughout the country became very violent and expression was given to it by an uprising of the students in Peking in 1919. The Government was able to carry on

**Student Uprising,
May 4th, 1919.**

largely by negotiating Japanese loans. Tsao Ju-lin,⁷ Lu Chung-yu⁸ and Chang Chung-hsiang⁹ were held responsible for the policy and were accused of sacrificing the interests of their country to those of Japan. Tsao Ju-lin's house was attacked by the students and serious rioting took place. The attempt to curb the students in Peking led to the spread of the trouble throughout the country, and the students everywhere organized a vigorous boycott against Japanese goods. Work in the schools came to an end and the students gave themselves up to the work of political propaganda. The first Student Strike was a success and the officials to whom they objected were removed from office.

In the following year, April 27th the students went out on strike again, because they were afraid that the Government would enter into direct negotiations with Japan in regard to the settlement of the Shantung Question. This strike was, however,

a failure, as it was not backed up by the merchant class as the first had been.

**The Struggle
between Chihli
and Anfu Factions.**

Tuan Chi-jui and his so-called Anfu protégés formed what is known as the Anfu party and dominated the Government. The Chihli and Fengtien (Mukden) Tuchuns took advantage of the rising public hostility to make a bid for power and to overthrow the Anfu party. Generals Tsao Kun¹ and Wu Pei-fu² with the assistance of General Chang Tso-ling³ undertook the forcible removal of the Anfu party from its control of the Government. The Power of the Anfu leaders collapsed after a few engagements in which the only real fighting was done by General Wu Pei-fu's forces. The Anfu leaders sought refuge in the Japanese Legation, and Chang Tso-ling and Tsao Kun, who took the title of Super-Tuchuns, assumed control at Peking. After the victory, the Tuchuns Parliament was dissolved. The President proclaimed the union of the nation, and issued a mandate for the election of a new parliament, but little progress was made in carrying out this program.

**The Southern
Government.**

The Southern Government at Canton had a chequered career. Quarrels arose among the Southern leaders. The Kwangsi faction drove out Sun Yat-sen and his associates, and an attempt was made to establish the seat of Government first in Yunnan and then in Szechuen.

General Ch'en Ch'ung-ming⁴ succeeded in driving out the Kwangsi faction from Canton, and then Sun Yat-sen, Tang Shao-yi and Wu Ting-fang, who had sought refuge in Shanghai returned to Canton, and re-established the so-called Constitutional Government. In April 1921 Sun Yat-sen was elected President of the Chinese Republic, but his authority was only recognized in a limited area in the South. Much improvement was made in the administration of the city of Canton, and visitors were favorably impressed with what appeared to be signs of progress.

**Civil War in
1922.**

During the latter part of 1921 General Chang Tso-ling again visited Peking to arrange matters to suit his own convenience and appointed the

Cabinet. This led to a rupture between General Wu Pei-fu and General Chang Tso-lin and brought about a Civil War in the Spring of 1922.

Chang Tso-lin had planned to eliminate Wu Pei-fu entirely, and had arranged a plan by which he would be attacked from many sides in his position at Loyang in Honan

The Manchurian army which came through the Great Wall numbered 84,000, while that commanded by Wu Pei-fu consisted of 64,000 men. The forces of Wu Pei-fu outflanked those of Chang Tso-lin and caused them to retreat in confusion.

**Restoration of
President Li.**

Following the defeat of Chang Tso-lin and the overthrow of Sun Yat-sen's administration at Canton by General Ch'en Ch'ung-ming, which took place shortly afterwards, President Hsu Chih-Ch'ang resigned and removed to Tientsin. General Li Yuan-hung, who had been residing in Tientsin since his resignation in 1917 was prevailed upon to return to the Capital and reassume the office of President. He reconvened the Parliament which he had dissolved through military pressure in 1917.

**The Washington
Peace Conference.**

China was invited to send representatives to the Washington Peace Conference which met November 12th, 1921. Her cause was ably advocated by such men as Dr. Sao Ke Alfred Sze, Minister to Washington, Dr. V. K. Wellington Koo, Minister to England, and Dr. Wang Chung Hui.¹ Unfortunately the division in her own territory between the Governments of the North and South was a severe handicap, but on the whole, she obtained far more from the Conference than her best friends had anticipated. Agreements were reached in regard to doing away with foreign post-offices. A Commission was appointed to take up immediately the matter of tariff revision, and another commission was to be appointed to visit China to study the judicial system of the country with a view to determining when extra-territoriality might be abolished. Japan definitely withdrew Group V of the Twenty-one Demands, and Great Britain consented to the return of Wei-hai-wei.

In connection with the Washington Conference the delegates from China and Japan met to consider the question of the return of Kiaochao. After long negotiations, Japan finally consented to give back the leased territory, but demanded that payment should be made for the improvements made in Tsingtao, and that the Tsinan-Tsingtao Railway should be redeemed.

China consented to these terms. Kiaochao has already been returned, but the redemption fund for the Railway has not yet been raised.

**Recent Events
in China.**

Shortly after the Washington Conference, the Government in Peking became so weak that it almost ceased to function, and the real power was exercised by the Tuchuns. Owing to lack of revenue China was unable to meet her obligations, and pay the expenses of the government, and was threatened with bankruptcy.

Owing to the breakdown in the government, banditry became rife throughout the country. The most audacious act of violence performed by the bandits was the holding up of a train on the Tientsin-Pukow Railway at Lincheng on the border between Kiangsu and Shantung in May 1923, and the kidnapping of a large number of foreign passengers. They were kept in confinement on the top of a mountain for 38 days, and were only released after the Government had virtually yielded to the demands of the bandits.

Among the Tuchuns Tsao Kun in North China and Chang Tso-lin in Manchuria became the most powerful. In the South Sun Yat-sen still continued in his endeavour to set up an independent government.

Through the machinations of Tsao Kun, President Li was forced to resign and to withdraw from Peking. Largely by resorting to Peking, Tsao Kun had himself elected President on November 8th, 1923.

Fortunately the historian is not called on to play the rôle of a prophet. It would be difficult, indeed, to make any forecast of the future. All would confess that up to the present the Republic has been a failure, and that politically China is in a

state of disintegration. At the same time there are many movements in progress indicating that out of the old China a new one is slowly being evolved.

Space will not permit us to refer to the educational, social and religious currents which are influencing the minds and hearts of the people, but these undoubtedly will have far-reaching results. When there is so much that is discouraging, it may be well to recall the hopeful outlook of H. G. Wells in his Outline of History, "At the present time it is probable that there is more good brain matter and more devoted men working at the modernization and reorganization of the Chinese civilization than we should find directed to the welfare of any single European people. China will probably have a modernized, practicable script, a press, new and vigorous universities, a recognized industrial system, and a growing body of scientific and economic inquiry. The natural industry and ingenuity of her vast population will be released to co-operate on terms of equality with the Western World. She may have great difficulties ahead of her yet, of that no man can judge.

"Nevertheless the time may not be very far distant when the Federated States of China may be at one with the United States of America and a peaceful and reconciled Europe, in upholding the organized peace of the World."

APPENDIX

The Chinese Dynasties.

Name of Dynasty.	Number of Sovereigns	Began.	Ended	Duration
The Age of the Five Rulers .	9	B C 2852	B.C. 2205	647
Hsia Dynasty	17	2205	1766	439
Shang or Yin	28	1766	1122	644
Chou	34	1122	255	867
Ts'in	5	255	206	49
Han, or Former Han, or Western Han	14	— 206	A D. 25	231
Later Han, or Eastern Han	12	A D 25	221	196
The Three Kingdoms	11	221	265	44
Western Tsin	4	265	317	52
Eastern Tsin	11	317	420	103
Division into North and South . .	58	420	589	169
Sung	9	420	479	59
Ch'i	7	479	502	23
Liang	6	502	557	55
Ch'en	5	557	589	32
Northern Wei	15	386	535	149
Western Wei	3	535	557	22
Eastern Wei	1	534	550	16
Northern Chi	7	550	589	39
Northern Chou	5	557	589	32
Sui	4	589	618	29
T'ang	22	618	907	289
The Five Dynasties	13	907	960	53
Later Liang	2	907	923	16
Later T'ang	4	923	936	13
Later Tsin	2	936	947	11
Later Han	2	947	951	4
Later Chou	3	951	960	9
Liao	9	907	1125	218
Western Liao	5	1125	1168	43
Kin	10	1115	1260	145
Sung	9	960	1127	167
Southern Sung	9	1127	1280	153
Yuan	9	1280	1368	88
Ming	17	1368	1644	276
Ts'ing	9	1644	1912	268

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